ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE: PERSPECTIVES ON A PROBLEMATIC CONCEPT

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ABSTRACT

It is generally accepted that organisations have their own tone or atmosphere whose subtle qualities may be intuitively recognised or felt. In an organisational model the technical term, organisational climate, defines these qualities more precisely so their effects upon organisational participants can be investigated. In school organisations, "school climate", "ethos" and "culture" have been used as synonyms to identify differences assumed to be important for teachers, pupils and parents.

Unfortunately, conceptual ambiguity has pervaded climate research for positivist operational definitions appear to have taken precedence over considerations of construct validity. Organisations have been assumed to have one climate which is differentially perceived, and perceptual measurement techniques have been used to identify underlying dimensions. Within this framework, competing assumptions of different researchers have obscured agreement about the nature of climate variables. There has been scant concern for the construct's factorial stability. Conflicting findings which have been difficult to generalise or relate to school effects, have resulted in conceptual confusion. The possibility that organisations may possess multiple climates has hardly been considered. Nor have studies investigated climate as a symbolic construct related to meanings and feelings held by individuals.

The present study argues traditional assumptions are too global for the construct to be useful as a focus of research. A qualitative analysis is applied to investigate the extent to which climate as an individual, personal construct can be translated into a global construct of shared meanings at organisational level.

Semi-structured interviews are conducted with the headteachers and teachers from two secondary schools. Meanings and feelings about organisational interaction are categorised into hierarchical networks representing emergent organisational-level characteristics. Data interpretation is further supported by quantified data of card-sort and questionnaires from 18 INSET teachers and 37 headteachers in different secondary schools.

Results suggest teachers but not headteachers, distinguish between meanings of "organisational climate", "ethos" and "school climate". Their different viewpoints have implications for school management practices.

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INTRODUCTION

Schools differ from each other in many ways. Apart from such physical aspects as their structure, and provision of facilities and resources, they differ in less obvious, but still real ways, by the impact they make on both external observers and participants.

Such differences are subtle, relatively intangible, and elusive to describe. In many respects they appear to defy identification. Nevertheless there is a quality - a "feeling", "tone", or "atmosphere", that is unique to each organisation and that is held by some to characterise the complex internal or psychological environment. This quality is generally considered, more or less synonymously as the ethos, climate, or organisational climate of the school.

Many visitors to schools can often identify - feel, or even "smell", this individual quality, quickly and unerringly. It is shaped by what is observed and experienced. For example, halls and corridors are empty or bubbling with noise; the work displayed is varied, eye-catching and original, or it is commonplace; activities are - or are not - displayed on noticeboards; there is general tidiness and a cared-for appearance of the physical surroundings, or there is disorder, damage, and perhaps graffiti.

It is possible also, for visitors to become aware of a school's orientation towards traditional knowledge and scholarship, or its attitude towards the freedom of expression and creativity, as well as its concern for personal relationships and respect for others.

Similarly, the interpersonal behaviours of those working in the school seem to affect visitors' impressions. For example, the headteacher's leadership style can be perceived - whether s/he appears too busy, aloof, formal and correct, firm, condescending, or friendly and welcoming.

The nature of the interaction among pupils may also be noted: their chatter - albeit shrill, threatening, defensive, questioning - or their silence; their liveliness, energy and enthusiasm - or their dullness, boredom and apathy.

The quality of the teacher-pupil relationships in the classroom may be observed - whether pupils sit quietly at their desks while their teacher talks, or whether they move about, actively investigating and problem-solving; whether they work together as a whole class, or in small groups, or as individuals - or whether they are working at all; whether the learning environment is structured or resourced by the teacher - or whether it is a disruptive environment. It can also be observed whether, and how, teachers and children communicate with each other outside the classroom - in the corridors, or elsewhere around the school.

Some, but not all, school visitors have access as professional colleagues, to the more separated world of the school staffroom. Here, they may become aware of teachers' working relationships with each other and with their senior management personnel, as well as of their attitudes to the children they teach.

Teachers' reactions to their experience of the quality of the communication among themselves - and between senior management and themselves - may be noted. These experiences, though perhaps difficult to define, are phenomenologically real to teachers: they seem to affect in a profound way, though differentially, and at different times, the personal happiness of all concerned, and this is reflected in their professional lives.

It is possible for instance, to observe whether teachers appear calm, competent, assured, involved, and concerned - or whether they are uncertain, tense, stressed, frenzied, cynical, detached, or even alienated. It is also possible to note their attitudes to change and professional development and career promotion, as well as the degree of commitment and involvement with the school as a whole.

Thus, for teachers the professional world amongst themselves as managers and administrators, and the school world they share with their pupils as embodied by the school's image to the outside world, are intrinsically linked: they may be attuned, but for some teachers the two worlds may also be in conflict.

These different aspects of school organisations - the physical environment, the various

school activities, the interpersonal relationships of pupil-pupil, teacher-pupil, teacher-teacher, and teacher-management - that seem to subscribe to this notion of organisational climate, are not only recognisable as features of present day school practice. Thomas and Slater (1972), in their validation studies of the concept of organisational climate ... or "tone", "atmosphere", "feel", or "school climate" ...set the term in an historical context by noting an official mention of the phenomenon as early as 1858, in Chief Inspector Wilkin's Report of Clarence Town School in N.S.W:

"...except in a few cases, children were tolerably clean and tidy. Still, I do not feel satisfied that all has been done to promote the neatness and cleanliness that could be desired....the maps on the walls were covered with dust.....although the children were orderly and obedient and the government seemed mild and considerate. My impression of the school as a whole is not satisfactory considering the means at the teachers' disposal. The progress made is not adequate to the power employed. In respect to that subtle and indescribable feeling which pervades every school and is to it, what personal character is to an individual, which, defying analysis and definition, is distinctly perceived by a visitor and which is named the "moral tone" of the school: I feel more disappointment. Instead of finding an earnest desire for knowledge, which always characterises children attending a school in a healthy condition, I was impressed with the idea that the pupils were languid and apathetic; that the instruction was mechanical rather than intellectual; and that their energies were repressed rather than developed....."

This conglomeration of impressions of past and present school practice, raises some questions about the veridical nature of the concept of organisational climate. For example, what are the relevant criteria of this phenomenon, and to whom do they apply? Are they the products of organisational behaviours, the behaviours themselves, or the meanings attributed to these behaviours? Are they observed or felt - or both? Do different people because of their different experiences of the school organisation, perceive different climates, or do they differentiate between certain aspects of a single climate? Chief Inspector Wilkins' perspective for instance, as a visitor to the school, is an "outside" observer's view of school organisation, despite his obvious knowledge of schools. It may be asked, therefore, whether other school visitors with access to

different aspects of school organisation, perceive different organisational climates in a school or different perspectives of the same climate. It may also be asked whether it is possible for any of these visitors, as "outside" observers, to share the same understanding of the term as those who work inside the school - the teachers and pupils who experience the school processes. Indeed, it may be asked whether management personnel, teachers, and pupils as "insiders", perceive the same criteria for their notions of school organisational climate. Pupils, for example, may perceive different criteria from those of their teachers; teachers may share a different perspective from that of their senior management personnel. It is also possible that different viewpoints might exist within each of these groups. For example, the different age, gender, and ability groups of pupils, the different status and faculty groups of teachers, or the relative role status of senior management personnel, may differ in their selected perspectives of school climate.

Even those aspects of organisational behaviour that are commonly identified as relevant perspectives of climate, can be interpreted differently, according to individuals' experience of these. The interpretations may also be bound up with associated feelings that give personally significant meanings to these experiences. Ultimately, therefore, it may be asked whether each individual, "outsider" or "insider", has a unique understanding of an organisational climate in a school. If this were so, there could be as many organisational climates as the number of individuals - visitors, members, or even researchers - who experience the school organisation. The phenomenon could exist only as a set of multiple realities - the constructions of unique, individual minds. It would be the subjective property of these individuals.

Conversely, aspects of the phenomenon that are commonly identified within a school can support the existence of a single school climate as a general molar property of the organisation, even though this may be differentially perceived. The criteria, however, may be school specific and, therefore, inapplicable to other school organisations: the qualitative and holistic nature of each school although identified, defies quantification. Alternatively, these characteristics may be universal features of school organisations, so that once identified they can be quantified to differentiate schools systematically. It may

even be assumed that climate characteristics of school organisations are universal features of all organisations.

Thus, the difficulties of conceptualising organisational climate as behavioural outcomes, behaviours, or as meaningful "felt experiences", are closely tied to methodological concerns of whether the phenomenon can be justifiably quantified in terms of dimensions that have a common basis across individuals. Such methods, however, may discount the qualitative nature of individuals' underlying meanings and feelings that may contribute importantly to a notion of climate.

The difficulties are reflected in organisational studies which have recognised the phenomenon as a useful research heuristic to account for organisational behaviour. There have been intensive and diverse efforts to conceptualise, measure and utilise the term, especially in the field of organisational management and administration.

Generally, it has been represented as a global, categorising concept in an organisational model, to distinguish those global qualities of an organisation that are experienced by its members, from other objective-based variables such as physical structures that might be assumed to influence organisational behaviour. In the case of schools, for example, the term has been assumed to have measurable effects upon the learning, and social and personal development of pupils.

The majority of climate studies, in assuming climate as a single, albeit multi-faceted concept, have also assumed that it conforms to linear dimension profiles. They have adopted an "outsider" perspective, and have concentrated upon the rigour of their methods to identify objectively, the basic dimensions of organisational behaviour that have been assumed to be characteristic of the concept. The universality of the construct has also been assumed, so that schools might be compared by these dimensional profiles. Few studies appear to have defined climates as nominal types, with a pluralistic configuration of dimensions.

Unfortunately, the studies appear to have misused or even abused, the status of climate

as a construct. The diverse operational definitions of the term, to coincide with the measurement techniques that have been adopted, have lead to conflicting findings and confusion. There is concern, for example, that the construct is "synonymous with organisational situation" .(James & Jones, 1974; p1099). Conversely, there is evidence to support its overlap with constructs that are individual behaviours of organisational research, such as role, leadership, and job-satisfaction (House and Rizzo, 1972). This state of affairs prompted Guion (1973), to conclude that climate represented a "fuzzy" concept and that its measurement was more a function of methodological convenience than deliberate intention to move to a new construct.

Similarly, James and Jones (1974), were concerned that measurement techniques and operational definition had preceded conceptualisation and that the concept was "even more diverse" than when Forehand and Gilmer (1964) had reviewed the organisational climate literature a decade earlier. They attempted to impose some order and direction by reconceptualising climate, and proposed guidelines for continuing its research by the "scientific method" paradigm. Further progress in this direction, however, appears to have been inhibited by the surgence of the alternative and competing paradigm for sociological research, which has drawn upon the work of G.H.Mead (Berger and Luckmann, 1967).

This paradigm recognises the importance of individual meanings that are acquired by personal experience of events in the social construction of reality. Thus, the paradigm provides the opportunity to tap the individual meanings and reactions underlying perceived organisational behaviour, by those who experience school processes. It also assumes the possibility of the qualitative nature of a specific school context.

Although this paradigm has also been a phenomenological perspective for conceptualising organisations (Barr-Greenfield, 1974), it has been more strongly emphasised in the research studies of organisational sociology as the "interpretative" approach. In this field, however, climate is more often assumed to be synonymous with the concept of culture - a term also subject to varying interpretations in the research literature.

The integration of social science disciplines may well be helpful for organisational themes, but the distinctions between climate and culture have by no means been clearly established and the existing conceptual confusion associated with organisational climate, can only be exacerbated by this assumed synonymity of terms. The conceptual boundaries of each term first need to be considered, to guide the measurement of data and its levels of explanation. It seems important, therefore, to address the veridical nature of the construct organisational climate if it is to be useful as a heuristic concept in organisational research.

The present study takes a step in this direction. Its basic question, "What is organisational climate"? attempts to grapple with the complexity of the construct. The study, therefore, does not ask whether the construct is an organisation level attribute that is perceived differentially by all or whether it is an individual attribute with many different climates existing in people's minds. Instead it examines the extent to which both attributes exist as the construct and the nature of their linkage.

The study compares the conceptual boundaries of the construct as perceived by two groups of school members - teachers and their management personnel - to explore the extent to which different people with different knowledge of a school perceive different perspectives of the same climate, or perceive different climates.

The study also attempts to uncover the symbolic nature of the construct by tapping teachers' underlying meanings and feelings associated with organisational processes. It categorises their individual data, to determine the extent to which individual meanings remain qualitative or emerge as categories of shared symbolic understandings of a construct with organisational level force. Individual meanings that contradict, could indicate an organisational climate as a set of multiple realities.

Finally by comparing the teacher/management perspectives of two schools, the study attempts to determine the extent to which the construct categories may be systematically compared, or whether climate is school specific.

The study adopts an intersubjective, socio-psychological perspective to take account of the complexity of a climate construct by recognising individuals' symbolic processes as well as the more general dimensions of organisational behaviour in a climate structure. By capturing the dynamic relationships within both levels as well as their relation to each other, this perspective can explain how individual meanings are welded into an organisational force by showing what organisational behaviours have what sort of meanings for its participants. The critical defining characteristic of the construct for an organisation, is the manner in which this linkage is defined.

The study also adopts a "grounded theory" approach, (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), to determine the conceptual boundaries of the construct as perceived by teachers in schools. It takes the view that schools may be specific organisational contexts, with specific climate characteristics best known to those who work in them. Also, teachers can provide a more comprehensive picture of school organisational practice than the managerial (e.g. leadership) perspective assumed by many climate studies. As "insiders" of school organisations, they also experience the organisational processes. Thus the underlying meanings ascribed to these may be tapped, to enable the symbolic aspects of the climate construct to be explored.

It is assumed that the gathering of qualitative data through participants' open-ended, free-response interviews can tap the underlying meanings and feelings. The complexity of the climate construct, however, may be just as limited by such qualitative description as it has been by quantitative techniques because its organisational level of analysis can be neglected. The data analysis, therefore, attempts to link individual and organisational levels by developing a network hierarchy of categories from individual data, each hierarchy accounting for more shared meanings than the one before. The analysis assumes the more general categories represent increasingly global organisational characteristics of organisational climate as an intersubjective construct, and the manner of linkage defines the construct in a specific context. Although this "textural" approach does not have immediate generalisabilty, it does enable the specificity of school climates to be examined. Successive studies can accumulate as well as distinguish critical

features.

The study sets up two theoretical models - a conceptual model and a methodological model - both of which acknowledge the construct's complexity. The first model proposes, in an outline structure of roles and "rule-meanings", how the two levels of analysis might be related through the interactions of teachers in schools. Thus, despite the "grounded theory" approach, existing theoretical ideals and research paradigms are tacitly recognised by this role-rule model to account for both the objective and subjective social reality of a school climate. Notions of symbolic interactionism, for instance, are germane to the model, for its "rule-meaning" aspects account for teachers defining their situation based upon meanings arising from the behaviours of school interaction. At the same time, the role aspects of the model can incorporate the existence of the "out-there" organisational reality of the job-situation, to monitor and maintain the rule-following social behaviour.

Secondly, a methodological model is outlined to bridge the epistemological gap between theoretical model and "grounded theory" approach. This provides a rationale for identifying the gaps or weak points in the data, through successive investigations in different schools. These investigations, however, are not intended to capture the social realities of climates as full, separate case studies describing school life, nor are they intended to treat one school as a simple pilot study of other school investigations. They are intended to progress towards an understanding of school organisational climate by successive case examples - capturing first one school in action, then another, and comparing and contrasting the salient features meaningful to their teachers, in order to predicate the construct. It is appreciated that the two-school investigation of the present study will be too limited to fully validate the theoretical model but, nevertheless, it can claim to refine the "fuzziness" of the construct.

Systemic network analysis of the data is adopted as a heuristic device, to elicit the hierarchical levels of relationships in revealing the basic characteristics of organisational climate as emergent organisational-force properties of the categorised individual data. In the event of the present study, however, this strategy becomes inappropriate for

detailed extension as unanticipated findings emerge at an early stage of the analysis, that require the investigation to alter direction in its methodological emphasis.

The initial analysis of qualitative data suggests that teachers differentiate between the terms ethos, organisational climate, and school climate. These have been assumed as synonyms by previous organisational studies.

These data, therefore, draw attention to the hermeneutic, subjective and meaning-laden significance of the concept of organisational climate and challenge the objective, logical stance taken in its conceptualisation. It prompts a systematic investigation, to describe the subtle differentiations in a terminology grounded in the perceptions and experiences of its participants.

In quantifying these data, the investigation is extended to wider samples of practising secondary school teachers and headteachers and these analyses specify some parameters of the concept of school organisational climate, that have implications for school management practice. The parameters may also apply to climates of other organisations. At the same time, despite the different approach, the findings partially support the integrity of the early conceptualisation by the researchers Halpin & Croft (1966), who first coined the term "organisational climate" in their studies of leadership behaviours in elementary school organisations.

The following review argues a case for the present study's conceptualisation of organisational climate, and for the need to develop an appropriate methodology if it is to retain its status as a useful research heuristic in organisational studies. Rather than being an exhaustive, or an historical account of the literature, the review first addresses in more detail, the major theoretical issues currently associated with ways of conceptualising and measuring organisational climate, and then focuses upon those writings that are representative as perspectives of these main issues. Although necessary reference is made to some industrial organisation studies, emphasis is placed upon studies that are primarily concerned with the organisational climate of educational institutions.

THE MAIN ISSUES

[1] CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

The main theoretical issues related to the construct of organisational climate are clearly associated with its conceptual definition and its methods of measurement. Both of these are closely linked. The issues stem from conflicting assumptions that are held about the nature, or social reality, of climates as organisational environments for individuals. These assumptions not only influence what, and to whom, the construct applies but also its ability to determine organisational behaviour. The assumptions also suggest whether climates can be justifiably quantified or whether their qualitative differences defy quantification.

Of fundamental importance is the issue of conceptualising the relationship of the individual in an organisational context and determining the level of analysis for explaining this. This creates a dilemma for researchers because they confront a paradox. For example, people are seen to create, maintain, and control their organisations. At the same time, organisations seem to have a life of their own in determining the behaviour of their individual members. Which exists first to influence the other?

The general behavioural truth - that both people and organisations may be mutually or reciprocally dependent, seems to have been overlooked by more over-riding, functional concerns about the purpose of organisations and by underlying assumptions about the nature of man in these contexts. The paradox of "who controls whom" has usually been resolved by acknowledging the relationship exists, then gravitating towards either one focus or the other as the level of analysis, according to the interests and assumptions of the researcher.

These assumptions are supported by organisational theory which has also focused, in varying degrees, upon either the individual or the organisation as concepts for its levels of theoretical analysis. Theoretical perspectives concerned with environmental influence upon individual behaviour have generally focussed upon the more global, molar concept

of organisation; theoretical concerns for individual rights and freedoms have found expression in the qualitative differences of individual concepts.

For instance, social and economic pressures may have forced a demand for increased efficiency and output to become a major organisational concern - and generated research concerned with the organisational control required to achieve these ends. An organisational level of analysis has been generally assumed with concerns of this nature, but an individual level of analysis could also be adopted, according to researchers' assumptions and concerns for "who controls whom". For example, Steiner's, (1972), statement that "individual predispositions are likely to be less critical than the demands of the social system", suggests an organisational level of analysis. Conversely, Barr-Greenfield's, (1976), phenomenological assertion that "organisations are the constructs of its participants" - organisations are people, not things - emphasises the importance of individual control.

Between these two extremes, interactionist theories in their various ways, attempt to account for the two-way influence between individual and organisation. For example, from the diagnostic viewpoint of a psychoanalytic perspective, concerns for working days per year lost through absenteeism, and the steady rise of stress-related problems of people at work, suggest individual needs may be so subjugated by organisational control that output and efficiency are decreased. The equilibrium is upset between organisational demands for productivity and the individual, psychological needs of how people want to work. The interactive influence of the individual and organisation is emphasised. Not only do the statistics suggest the adverse effects of organisational control upon productivity, but also in a more negative way, they indicate the influence of the individual as a determinant of organisational behaviour. For example, the "socio-technical systems" approach of Trist & Bamforth's, (1951), coal-mining studies, and Rice's, (1958), Ahmedabad experiment in Indian textile mills, reflect the importance of individual influence in determining an organisational effectiveness below that of its optimum capacity. Similarly, Goffman, (1961), has written detailed and convincing accounts of how individuals adapt to the humiliating and depersonalised systems of

organisational control in "total" institutional life such as prisons or asylums.

The issue of the appropriate level of analysis can even be seen in the choice of such interface concepts as socio-technical system, role, group, attitude and perception, adopted by interactionist theorists to reflect the organisational/individual field as their unit of analysis. These also are subject to researchers' assumptions and concerns.

From a role theory perspective, for example, Goffman, (1969), views individual roles and the "fixed props" of job-situations from the perspective of the individual's dramatic performance. Conversely, Katz & Kahn's, (1978), concept of role in a social systems model, as "the building block of social systems and the summation of the requirements with which the system confronts the individual member", is an organisational orientation, as is the concept of role in the Getzel-Guba model, (1957).

Similarly, the importance of individual needs in group dynamic approaches of Lewinian field theory, is discounted by some structural sociologists as the irrational, informal counterpart of a rational, formal, organisational system of control. Thus, in organisational studies there is clearly an issue about the appropriate level of analysis for conceptualising the nature of the organisation, according to assumptions and the purpose of the research. The issue is not only between levels, but also lies within the interpretation of interface concepts. Neither the individual nor the organisational focus appears to have given the other its full due. The issue reflects, perhaps, the dominant concerns of psychological and sociological disciplines. Individual and organisation have been assumed as psychologically and socially separate - like Newtonian atoms colliding in organisational space, (Llewelyn & Kelly, 1980). It is suggested for example, that psychologists "have been slow to document the effects of organisations upon individuals", and that the individual is rated too highly in psychological studies of organisational behaviour, (Stephenson, 1978).

More recently, however, social psychology has re-addressed the individual-environmental field as its smallest unit of analysis in order to reflect not only the

interaction, but the mutuality and inter-relationship of each concept. Studies adopting this conceptual framework need to elicit the underlying meanings attributed by individuals to organisational behaviour, as appropriate concepts for this level of analysis.

The conceptual issues of organisational studies have also confronted researchers with a specific interest in organisational climate, a construct introduced as a research heuristic into an organisational model to reflect the qualities an organisational context has for its participants. As such, it has represented a useful means of distinguishing organisational characteristics for individuals, from other organisational variables such as physical structures that might be assumed to influence behaviour. However, are these characteristics observer-based organisational products or behaviours or do they exist in an intrapersonal or psychological sense - as constructs inside people's heads? The issue of its level of analysis is fundamentally important in determining the nature of the construct.

The issue has been perpetuated in climate studies for the same reasons as in organisational studies - the purpose of the research and researchers' assumptions. The issue is reflected, for example, in studies directed towards organisational effectiveness and those of diagnostic intervention for organisational development. The issue has also been resolved in the same way - climate has been assumed as either an organisational attribute, or an individual attribute. Climate concepts such as communication networks, for example, have been considered as organisational attributes; concepts such as perceptions and attitudes have been individual attributes.

Climate studies that have attempted to relate individual reactions to organisational attributes have also confronted the same within-level of analysis issue of concepts such as groups, roles, attitudes and perceptions. Lewin's, (1939), set of authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire climate experiments is a classic example of climate as an individual attribute in a group level analysis. His concern is for the highly subjective "life space" of the world as the individual sees it, but his methodology is a laboratory-

style study at a group level of analysis. It is assumed organisational behaviour is "individual behaviour writ large in organisational terms", (Sofer, 1973).

Other researchers have attempted to relate individual reactions to organisational characteristics by individual perceptual measures to explain climate as an organisational attribute. Even climate concepts such as perceived leadership style, for example, with two within-levels of analysis - roles and perceptions - have been assumed to have stable organisation-wide "role" characteristics that can be perceived by everyone. As perceptions are individual attributes, these assumptions reflect more conceptual ambiguity and uncertainty than interactionist conceptualisations.

Thus, climate researchers in varying degrees have also considered the individual and organisation as basically separate concepts. Their assumptions have determined the use of the construct as an antecedent, mediating, or consequent variable, with implications for the extent to which it can be manipulated as a truly explanatory construct. Psychologists have yet to investigate the construct's possible symbolic aspects at a level of analysis that elicits individual meanings, to reflect the mutuality and interdependency of the individual/organisational field. In organisational sociology, this avenue has already been explored by ethnographic studies of the concept of culture.

However, the individual / organisational issue of whether climates as social environments preexist individuals to control their behaviour, or vice versa, is not the only concern at issue. This broad issue also raises a number of interrelated conceptual issues that have contributed to the conceptual confusion and ambiguity with the construct.

First, if climates are assumed to preexist individuals, it must also be asked whether they exist in a real sense as objective, observer-based characteristics or behaviours to be selectively perceived, or in a more abstract, psychological sense as "states of minds" created by individuals. For those who subscribe to the former, climates exist as a "set of summary or global perceptions held by individuals about their organisational

environment", (James & Jones, 1974, p.1105). This approach is representative of many traditional climate studies. If climates exist in a real sense, however, there is the difficulty of deciding which organisational characteristics, and to whom, these apply. There may be different perspectives of the construct for say, outsider/insider, management-worker, or teacher-pupil. Although it is clear members would have to be consulted, it is uncertain whether visitors, with less knowledge of the organisation, can perceive the same organisational characteristics.

Secondly, if climates are psychological constructs, it must also be asked to what extent such climates exist as global organisational concepts of shared minds - the accumulated constructs of the organisational group's experiences. This conceptual definition can assume affective components are concomitants of experience to influence individual members. The shared meanings of the group are manifested by an intangible, social atmosphere that develops as a consequence of these organisational experiences. Therefore, the climate construct can apply only to group members. As a global, shared construct located in individual minds climate could be assumed to have an organisation-wide determining force as both an antecedent and a moderating variable of behaviour.

Alternatively, personal constructs might be unique so that climates can only exist as sets of multiple realities, reflecting the transient and subjective qualities of its individuals. Johanneson, (1973), suggests "there are as many climates as there are people in the organisation". Thus he highlights the issue of whether different perspectives of a climate are differential perceptions of the same climate or whether these are evidence of different organisational climates. This means climate researchers must also address the issue of whether organisations can have basic climate characteristics in common with each other to enable comparison, or whether each is a unique configuration of its members.

Climates, therefore, may exist as real or created, and as global or multiple realities of the individual/organisational field. There is also a further within-level of analysis issue that affects the nature of the construct. If symbolic aspects are important in a climate

construct, the adequacy of such concepts as perceptions or attitudes, to reflect the depth of this level of analysis, must also be questioned. Individual meanings need to be elicited. The level of meaning involved must also be determined: manifest meanings - meanings that affect behaviour but of which the individual is unaware - may suffice, but deeper, hidden or "unconscious" aspects of meaning could also be involved.

Conversely, it must also be asked whether individual meanings as mutual, interdependent concepts can adequately create a construct with an organisation-wide force. Francis, (1980), recognises this difficulty in analysing school organisations, as the different conceptual status of "the life of the school" and the life of the child". She suggests two systems models to account for both,but interestingly adds "it is just possible that a suitable analysis of the school life of the child might rest within an analysis of the school". Might not it be possible to demonstrate the climate construct as a relationship of individuals' underlying meanings of the construct, nested within an organisational level analysis of its structure? Thus, a more global level of shared meanings demonstrating its relation to the level of individual meanings might be necessary to account for how individual status attributes can weld into an organisational force.

In order to address these issues that relate to the nature of organisational climate the present study takes the view that people can create, maintain, and control the climates that also exist to influence their actions. Thus, a climate can acquire a life of its own and an existing climate can change its identity by the influence of any of its members. In order to demonstrate their mutuality and interrelationship an intersubjective construct of climate is adopted, that not only uses intersubjective concepts, but also an intersubjective level of analysis to bridge both levels of individual and shared meanings. This conceptualisation addresses the construct's complexity. It also imposes some methodological restraints for explaining it. The methodological issues related to the climate construct are discussed in the following chapter.

(2) METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

Issues of the conceptual definition of the climate construct are closely linked to issues of the methodology adopted to explain its complexity. The methodological issues are concerned with the appropriateness of quantitative v. qualitative methods, especially the issues of the empirical approaches traditionally used to measure the construct. These have raised the issue of whether climates can be systematically compared or whether they are qualitatively discrete constructs. They have also raised the issue of whether climates should be defined in terms of linear dimensions or as nominal types.

Climate researchers have been constrained in their conceptualisation of the construct by the assumptions underlying qualitative and quantitative methodology, for these also reflect the individual/organisational issues confronting its conceptual definition as an individual or as an organisational attribute. Organisational attributes are assumed to be quantifiable by an "outside" researcher's objective procedures so that organisations can be systematically compared; individual attributes are assumed to be assessed by subjective measures that can acknowledge qualitative differences in individuals.

Quantitative approaches, however, can less easily take adequate account of the subjective underlying meanings and feelings, or hermeneutic significance, of individual perceptions. They cannot account for how an existing climate is created. They ignore the "thick", (Geertz,1973:6), "deep", (Sieber,1973), and "holistic", (Rist,1977:47), material of qualitative data. These criteria may be important in accounting for symbolic aspects of the climate construct but are more readily tapped by qualitative methods.

Few climate studies, however, have adopted a qualitative approach as they tend not to be methodical: each analysis begins anew focussing on whatever happens to be pertinent to the question in a specific context. As a result, although qualitative approaches can afford detailed insights by tapping underlying meanings they are not by nature, systematic: a particular context may be described in detail, but the possible relation of its insights to other contexts can be neglected. Thus, the hermeneutic significance of individuals in contributing to a conceptualisation of organisational

climate may have been underrated, or even discounted.

Conversely, it seems the assumptions underlying the rigorous empirical approach of the "scientific method" paradigm have enabled climate researchers to sidestep some difficult conceptual issues of the nature of the relationship between the individual and the organisational context. Within the context of this paradigm, they have been able to assume climate as a preexisting, global, multi-faceted, organisational attribute whose characteristics have a common basis among individuals, so that organisations can be compared objectively for wider policy-making purposes. This has been convenient for those researchers whose interests are in organisational control and administration. They have been able to assume a management perspective for explaining the construct.

The vast majority of climate studies have attempted to relate the organisational characteristics of management such as leadership style to individual responses, by means of perceptual measures such as the questionnaire and have made use of robust, multi-dimensional statistical models such as factor analysis, to confirm the construct's underlying dimensions. They have assumed the models' methodological rigour to supply the objectivity lacked by the subjective, individual response.

Alternatively, some climate studies have adopted laboratory style experiments whose methodological rigour has been in the experimental design, for the control of variables. The observed behaviours of specific individuals under controlled experimental conditions have been recorded and analysed to explain researchers' hypotheses. For example, Lewin's, (1939), classic experiments defining climates as authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire types have demonstrated the effect of different leadership styles upon the observed socio-emotional behaviours of groups of boys in hobby clubs, to determine the group atmosphere or social climate as a nominal type. The paradigm has enabled a conceptualisation of climate not as an intangible concept, but as an existing psychological reality that can be scientifically observed. The observable behaviours, under the objectivity of experimental conditions, have been assumed to account for the underlying individual meanings of the affective reactions.

However, the extent to which methodology can verify the construct, is debatable. The procedures of the paradigm raise issues that question not only their claim to objectivity, but also challenge the appropriateness of the paradigm for determining the veridical nature of the construct. Of particular concern are the role of the "outside" researcher, operational definitions, methods of data collection, and statistical techniques for data interpretation. All of these raise issues that relate to conceptual confusion and ambiguity about the appropriate level of analysis to be adopted.

Climate studies indicate that researchers vary in what they consider to be the construct's relevant, measurable features. There has been a plethora of operational definitions with various item pools of questions, according to different researchers' hypotheses of the nature of the construct. Clearly, there is conceptual confusion about what organisational characteristics to formulate as relevant questions and to whom they apply. In addition, the questions asked by "outside" researchers may not be valid for organisational members, nor reflect their deeper knowledge of the organisation. Their focus upon a management perspective such as leadership style, also ignores the possibility of different perspectives of climate among other organisational members such as teachers and pupils in schools.

Confusion about the appropriate unit of analysis may also have led researchers to utilise inappropriate methods of measurement. Questionnaires as measures of perceptual data may have only tapped the surface features of the construct, rather than the deeper structures of the construct itself. Even these may be invalid, for items may be variously interpreted, their language may be inappropriate and responses may be veiled or lacking in thought.

Researchers' use of statistical techniques for interpreting data, also reflects their conceptual ambiguity about the appropriate level of analysis to be adopted for explaining the construct. The techniques are based upon consensus measures - that is, they dismiss individuality as error variance and provide information about how members feel on average. Researchers, however, make no mention of the degree of consensus required for individual reactions to achieve the status of an organisational attribute.

They are uncertain whether to define climate at the individual, or the organisational level, or somewhere in between. They rely upon the mathematics of the statistical model. Neither do they interpret the contradictory perceptions: these could indicate the absence of a climate, or the presence of different climates. There is a marked difference between no climate and a climate with a low rate of agreement: the latter could imply dissent.

The use of statistical models to group and interpret individual data also raises further issues about the paradigm's ability to establish the true nature of the construct. For example, the statistical techniques adopted to identify the basic dimensions of the construct are usually formulated by the precise mathematical formulas of confirmatory factor analysis, that tend only to reflect the "a priori" hypotheses of the researcher. Thus, the extent to which the organisational dimensions of the construct are empirically determined is in doubt. Researchers also assume the stability of the factor structures as organisational attributes. There has been difficulty, however, in generalising the dimensions that have emerged from factor analyses beyond the organisations where they were first developed. Even in replication studies, problems have surfaced with the internal validity and reliability of the factor structures. These contest not only the mathematical model, but also the stability of the construct as a quantifiable concept. The nature of the construct may be qualitative, with aspects untapped by this paradigm.

School climates, for example, could have different characteristics from those of business or industrial organisations. Even differences in school climates that emerge as a result of quantitative measures could be interpreted either as the existence of different climates or argued as due to context and/or time specific elements. When can researchers be certain they have identified the veridical factors of climate? At what stage do pilot studies, that identify context and time specific elements, become redundant for establishing the universal existence of the construct as a global, multi-faceted organisational attribute? If climates are context and time specific, their qualitative differences might not enable systematic comparison.

The issue of whether climates are quantitative or qualitative in nature also influences

whether they should be defined as dimensions or types. For comparing schools systematically, it has been a simpler strategy to define climates as sets of dimensions or continuous variables. The statistical procedures assume each dimension is discrete and meaningful to organisational members and exists on a continuum with values that vary in degree from organisation to organisation. There could be as many possible climates as there are combinations of values in a climate profile.

Conversely, climates classified as nominal types are more generally conceptualised as discrete and qualitative by nature. They are assumed to be fewer in number. They cannot be reduced to a set of dimensions because they are integrated sets of properties to which members react as wholes. They are constellations or patterns that are inseparable, although they can be rated on dimensions like autonomy or supportiveness. Statistical techniques, such as cluster analysis and higher order factor analysis, in their different ways reduce the individual data still further by grouping the dimensions to illuminate underlying structures more clearly. There is a problem, however, of defining what constitutes a group for describing a climate type. The usefulness of the greater parsimony of these global distinctions is also questioned, for their generality has led to inconclusive research findings.

Thus, the main issues confronting climate researchers are not only conceptual issues of whether the construct as an organisational attribute, exists or is created by individuals; of whether it is a global concept or a multiple reality; and of whether its symbolic meanings or its observer-based perceptions, are significant. The issues are also methodological: of whether climates can be quantified or whether qualitative approaches are more appropriate for reflecting their conceptual complexity, and whether they should be defined as linear dimensions or as nominal types. The issues have arisen from problems in empirical approaches traditionally used to explain the construct - the role and assumptions of the "outside" researcher, and the adequacy of rigorous procedures of data collection and the statistical interpretation of this, for explaining the construct. Concern for quantifying climates could have underrated its qualitative characteristics, especially its hermeneutic significance to "inside" members. Also, measuring climates as dimensional profiles in preference to a typology of climates might not have done

justice to this complexity.

What is needed is a methodology that can address these issues by reflecting both the construct's underlying symbolic aspects and its more globally shared meanings of behaviours, as a fully intersubjective construct. Not only must the concepts be intersubjective, but the methodology also, must reflect this intersubjectivity.

The conceptualisation of climate as an intersubjective construct, however, imposes its own methodological constraints. For instance, as participants' experiences are crucial to the conceptualisation and, as experiences of organisational processes involve communication with other members, the intersubjectivity must be based upon their interaction. The method must also be able to uncover the symbolic meanings of their experiences in a specific organisational context. It must be based, therefore, on members' accounts of these and reflect the language concepts they use to give meaning to these practices.

It is appreciated that this indirect approach may only identify the possible nature of the climate construct, but the direct practices to be observed by either a participative or non-participative researcher are excluded - as are the perceptions of other visitors - because they are not truly "insiders" of such processes. This could be an empirical question for later investigations.

Finally, the data analysis must reflect the nature of the linkage between the complexity of individual meanings and the more commonly shared categories of global organisational interaction, in terms of intersubjective concepts. Systemic network analysis is adopted as a heuristic device, to indicate the degree to which climates are either multiple or shared global realities. By systematically comparing and contrasting the salient features of members' interaction in two different schools, the network structures may also indicate the degree to which school climates are context specific and qualitative in nature.

The following review of the literature argues that an intersubjective analysis of climate is

more complex, but more true to the nature of climate than either individual-level or organisational-level definitions. It argues for a broader conceptualisation than that provided by a management perspective alone, and the importance of an "insider" view of the construct. It also argues for the need to develop an appropriate methodology to capture not only the construct's complexity, but also to establish the extent to which one climate or different climates exist in a school and the extent to which school climates may be systematically compared.

In order to justify the need to move to a new construct and to develop an appropriate methodology, the review first considers the issues of systems theory and phenomenological perspectives that have been central to conceptualising the construct to date. Methodological issues that have contributed to the existing conceptual confusion of the construct are also examined, by reference to the empirical findings of climate studies. The specific issues to be highlighted by these studies are the role of climate researchers and their operational definitions of the construct, issues of data collection, and issues of the statistical techniques for analysing and interpreting the climate construct.

CHAPTER 1

ISSUES: SYSTEMS THEORY FRAMEWORKS

Many of the operational definitions of the climate construct are rooted in the ideas and concepts of systems theory. This explains organisations as "complex unities of orderly arrangements" and organisational behaviour as a function of people's interaction in these environments. The climate construct defined in behavioural terms, is a useful research heuristic for understanding organisational behaviour so that strategies can be developed to control this more effectively. However, what is the nature of organisational behaviour - and is defining the construct in these terms an appropriate way of conceptualising it? To address these questions, this chapter examines the relationship between behavioural conceptualisations of climate and systems theory frameworks of organisational behaviour.

Von Bertalanffy's, (1968), concepts of "closed" and "open" systems have been useful for distinguishing organisations in terms of their behaviour. Closed systems based on the laws of physics, are those organisations that are independent of their environment. They achieve internally, their own stable, steady state of operation converting their energy into a finite end-product.

Open systems based upon an organismic, biological model of life processes are those organisations that import and work to convert in order to support, their environment. Such systems are continually interacting with their environment. There is a continuing process of adaptation or change between their boundaries. Boundary exchanges are assumed to be the essential responsibility of management personnel. For organisations such as schools, boundaries may be either different groups within an organisation such as senior management, teachers and pupils, or those of the local community such as governors, L.E.A., parents or visitors. There are however, "strong" and "weak" versions of open systems.

For example, adaptation between boundaries is an important concept for open systems. It enables the organisation to maintain and create itself in a state of dynamic

equilibration by a two-way process of control. Equilibration, i.e. causing things to balance - rather than equilibrium as a state of balance - is also an important concept. It assumes change is more than adaptation: it is positive and "feeds forward" to provide development. "Forward change" is the stable condition of such an open system - not a sudden or rare occurrence, but a continuing process that maintains and increases effectiveness.

The concept of dynamic equilibrium on the other hand, assumes a stable, finite state as a slow, but continuing outcome of change - not the continuous stream of change as a process underlying this. This version of an open system can account for change only as adaptation - an adaptation as two-way reactive behaviour. It cannot pinpoint the source of change between or within boundaries. It has already achieved an internal stability - perhaps, for example, by the interpersonal consensus of its members in adapting to the administrative styles of management.

The equilibrium model is thus ill-equipped to explore incompatibility among members: it cannot take into account contradiction as well as consensus among different groups, nor their unequal strength by their relative independence or dependence upon organisational control. It is a convenient concept for those managers - and researchers - who assume organisational consensus across internal boundaries is critical for achieving predetermined goals. Maintenance of equilibrium can be assumed as a means of social control - by socialisation, or by the role-taking behaviours of members in a planned system of overlapping work groups.

Individuals in this version of the model are viewed as members of organisational groups. The model cannot account for "man as a pro-active, self-aware subject, intentionally intervening within a socially circumscribed world", (Llewelyn & Kelly,1980; Shotter,1975; Harre,1979;). The individual social and emotional needs that are known to pervade interpersonal relationships and group dynamics are acknowledged in this version of the model, but only as the latent behaviours of an informal system: a non-rational, but necessary counterpart of the logical and orderly, observer-based formal system.

Thus, open systems with concepts of organisational adaptation and equilibrium for consensus are more appropriately studied at an organisational level of behavioural analysis. They are primarily the concern of management. Organisational behaviour is a function of organisational groups in an objective context or environment that exists as B=f(PxE). For these researchers, the organisation is an objective reality where organisational behaviour can be observed as a product of individuals in a situational context.

The concept of "equifinality" helps to distinguish the concept of equilibration from equilibrium in open systems. Equifinality accounts for how organisational goals can be achieved from different starting points and by different routes; equilibration is the continuous, quivering state of balance due to the forces and pressures created by these different sources in a continuous process of change to achieve organisational goals. Equifinality, therefore, can account for how open systems change or renew themselves and implies choice for management strategies, structures and procedures. However, it also suggests pressures for change can come from any member of the system, so organisational control is not necessarily a unidirectional management force. Thus, the concept recognises the significance of individual differences among organisational members in achieving organisational goals. Consensus, therefore, is not a prerequisite. Consensus and contradiction together, create and maintain the state of equilibration for productivity. The concept also claims to represent organisations of a real world - not the highly rational and systematic hierarchies of organisation that are assumed to exist, but organisations which, as "socio-technical systems", "organised anarchies" or "loosely-coupled" systems", may be directed by "contingency - or crisis - management" approaches. Thus, the concept claims to account for the uncertainty, coping strategies and non-rational behaviour of individuals that can affect organisational and personal effectiveness.

Thus, "strong" open systems with concepts of equilibration and equifinality can be distinguished from "weak" open system models with concepts of adaptation and equilibrium. They can challenge a management perspective of organisations by their

acknowledgement of individual choice or human agency among organisational members as, for example, in decision-making procedures. As such, they provide a conceptual framework for an individual level of behavioural analysis in organisational studies, as B=f(P,E). This means "an individual may be seen as an open system. He exists and can exist only through processes of exchange with his environment", (Rice,1969: 574).

As the closed system cannot account for adaptation, it follows that it cannot account for either equilibration or equilibrium. It provides only a management perspective of the organisation - a management that assumes unidirectional control to achieve goals efficiently and effectively. The closed system is not concerned with either the reactive behaviours of individual members or their differences.

In terms of Pugh's, (1966), analysis of modern organisation theories, closed systems may be appropriate models for structural theorists of organisations who describe the relationship between structure and other organisational variables, such as job-specification and control. They may also be appropriate for some classical management theorists, such as Fayol, (1841-1925), and his analysis of administrative processes essential for more effective management, or for technology theorists such as Taylor, (1856-1917), and his methods of "scientific management" to increase output efficiently. These rational approaches share a deterministic view of organisational behaviour: it is shaped by a series of impersonal mechanisms that exist before members and act as external constraints upon them. The rational and logical closed systems model can reflect these assumptions. However, it is argued it represents an outdated view of authority relationships: in its concern for organisational activities, individuals are over-socialised and depersonalised. Their potential is discounted.

The closed system model has been useful for climate researchers who have wanted to identify characteristics of the organisational context or environment as a predictable means of organisational control, thereby improving management techniques for increasing organisational effectiveness. These researchers have assumed organisations as social structures that preexist their members and whose characteristics can be observed objectively. Consequently, they have assumed the climate construct as a

single, pervasive, "out-there" reality - an organisational environment or context that can be objectively observed, albeit selectively perceived, by its members as well as its visitors. For these researchers, the organisational environment comes close to being the organisation itself.

There are climate studies, for example, that assume the construct can be identified by such objective, observer-based variables of environmental stimuli as staff turnover, school policies, school size, graffiti, or the number of library books. This approach is advocated by ecological psychologists, (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964), who are concerned for objectivity in assuming the coercive power of the organisational environment upon behaviour. They define climate as "a set of characteristics that describe an organisation" and which "distinguish it from other organisations, are relatively enduring over time, and influence the behaviour of people in the organisation". Barker and Gump's, (1964), study of the relationship between school size and student behaviour is an example of this approach. They found a direct relationship between school size and student participation in extra-curricular activities. Also Baird, (1969), showed that participation and achievement are related to school size and the effect of the local community. Barker's work also influenced Sarason's, (1971), concept of school culture - as "a milieu generated by a pattern of activities, temporal qualities and physical environment, which can be manipulated to bring about organisational change through their impact upon organisational members".

The conceptualisation of the ecological approach, however, seems at variance with the reason for introducing the construct into an organisational model - to reflect the properties an organisation has for its members. The possible indices of this broad definition are also so specific and numerous, they cannot convey the meaning of the properties or their relation to each other. A concept of climate, for example, could be determined by a researcher's own choice of situational characteristics and almost any organisational study could be subsumed under the climate umbrella. As this conceptualisation of climate could duplicate other situational characteristics generally considered as main effects in organisational studies, it does not appear to make sufficient contribution to organisational theory to qualify as a separate component in an

organisational model.

Most conceptualisations of organisational climate, however, have relied heavily upon the concepts of adaptation and equilibrium in the open systems model. Like its closed systems counterpart, it also has been useful for identifying attributes at the organisational level of behavioural analysis, for predicting managerial ways of controlling behaviour to increase organisational effectiveness. The concepts of adaptation and equilibrium have been influenced by human relations approaches to organisational theory that acknowledge more understanding of human behaviour in organisational settings. They view person and organisational context as complementary parts. They recognise the non-rational, or psychological human factors affecting organisational life.

Human relations approaches have been instrumental in stimulating climate studies whose concern has been to tap the underlying non-rational, antecedents of group behaviour as a psychological construct of climate. These have been assumed as the inner, human socio-emotional needs that, if satisfied, create a happy climate. It is assumed a happy climate increases organisational effectiveness; a lack of consensus restricts both. Thus consensual concepts of group morale, job-satisfaction, leadership style, participant communication and decision-making arising from organisational interaction have had a lasting impact upon the nature of climate as a psychological construct. Researchers have assumed the climate construct mediates group members' subjective perceptions of organisational attributes and their consequent organisational behaviour.

The open systems consensus model has provided a theoretical framework for these conceptual definitions. It enables assumptions of organisations as social structures that preexist members and can be subjectively perceived by them. Thus the climate construct has been conceptualised as a global, pervasive, "out-there" reality whose characteristics can be perceived across organisations. Whether the same characteristics can be similarly perceived by "outsiders" such as school visitors is a conceptual issue that challenges assumptions about the nature of the construct - and also, the conceptual

model.

Climate studies have also applied concepts of role theory to this version of the open systems model to reflect, by the use of appropriate concepts, a more specific level of analysis of individual/organisation interaction to explain the construct. Thus, the construct has explained organisational behaviour in terms of assigned roles - as people in their job-situations - that are inter-related and interlocking sets of relationships in dynamic equilibrium. For example, the Getzels-Guba social systems model, (1957), conceptualises organisational behaviour in terms of roles and has been adopted by climate researchers as a conceptual framework for studies of perceived styles of leadership. Equilibrium is assumed between role groups in the system. It is manifested by the consensus among interpersonal relationships of the organisation. This is achieved by the leader's boundary management of role groups and the means of achieving it creates a corporate morale, as a psychological climate construct with organisation-wide force. If, for example, the management style can be perceived to promote authenticity, autonomy, consideration, rewards, and easy, informal relationships between colleagues across role boundaries, a corporate high morale is assumed. This maintains and increases the effectiveness and productivity of the formal system. Consensus measures of members' subjectively perceived leadership styles have been adopted by researchers to reflect the construct in these behavioural terms. They reflect also the implicit managerial bias of the open systems consensus model.

In schools, for instance, it has been assumed that high morale is the outcome of teachers' perceptions of their headteacher's leadership style, (Halpin & Croft,1963), or the approaches to decision-making and power-equalisation processes, (Likert, 1967). It is assumed the morale "spills over" through interaction with other role groups such as pupils, or other teaching faculties with different concerns. Both are assumed to respond accordingly to maintain the dynamic equilibrium necessary for the school's effectiveness.

It has been argued, however, school organisational practice does not reflect the rational

and systematic approaches of classical management and human relations perspectives of organisations contained by the closed system and the equilibrium model. For example, Cohen, March & Olsen's "garbage-can" model of decision making processes developed from studies of school organisations, (1972), asserts organisational processes in schools are more a loose collection of ideas than a coherent structure, and Owens, (1981), reports schools as "loosely coupled" organisations, where the coupling is the "glue that holds them together", (Weick,1979). This suggests, either schools are not the highly rational and systematic consensual structures that ought to exist, or the concepts of the systems model are inappropriate for the analysis of school organisational practice.

The open systems consensus model, for instance, does not take account of the contradiction that can be observed in school organisational practice. This has implications for consensus-based definitions of the climate construct. Contradiction is clearly possible in the complex organisations of secondary school practice. For example, the goals of secondary schools are not clear cut: they are diffuse and diverse; they are different for different groups, and can conflict. Also the schools' organisational groups are of unequal strength: there are differences between and within groups of teachers and pupils in relative independence or dependence upon organisational control. There is also low interdependence among groups because of separate teaching departments - each of whom has its own leader, as Head of Department, at the boundary - and classes separated by age, ability or gender. There is also fluctuating disagreement between the demands of government, employers and parents of the external system about the quality of educational achievement: even the technology of schools - what children should learn and how they should learn it - is open to debate. This creates uncertainty, ambiguity and discord internally. These differences not only affect the equilibrium of the system, they are also seen to affect teachers and pupils as individuals in profound ways. The open systems consensus model only considers individuals as a collective.

The model also assumes change is smooth and continuing. In school practice, although change is in process, the change is not smooth and continuing: it can be

sudden, or it can surge; neither is it always positive: it can come adrift. It is difficult for management personnel to plan ahead systematically when schools have to respond quickly to unexpected change. In schools, reactions to tension and stress can be observed with "crisis" management approaches to specific problems created by a sudden and rapid pace of change. The problems are complex, inconsistent and cannot always be structured coherently or logically. Decision-making, for choices that intermesh in complex ways and need prioritising, cannot be unilateral: they require collaboration for issues whose outcomes have to be negotiated. Not always is there consensus. The resulting tension is seen to affect individuals in personal ways and can disrupt further practice. A managerial perspective cannot account for individual members as an influential source of change. Instead, it is suggested schools "discover preferences through action more than they act on the basis of preferences", (Cohen,March & Olsen,1972). In practice, therefore, it is less easy to conceptualise climate in consensual terms. A consensus model may be merely a convenient view for those concerned with the management and administration of organisations. The contradiction as well as consensus of school practice and the lack of rational structure as outlined by the model for organisational effectiveness, suggest schools first may need to be described to see how they actually function. Burlingame, (1979), for example, calls for a closer match of theory and practice in school organisations. He notes with concern, the diametrical views of traditional research and real-world practice by researchers who emphasise open communication, shared decisions and treat time as linear for forward planning and teachers who, in contrast, emphasise confidentiality, isolation and treat time as a function of cyclical routines.

However, although it is argued school organisations are different in nature from other organisations and require a specific organisational model to conceptualise them, it is also possible to note the similarities developing between educational and industrial organisations as economic pressures require schools to take their place in a competitive market. Conversely, other organisations may also in reality, be more complex, conflicting and non-rational, than is envisaged by the neat and tidy, logical theorising of organisations as rational systems in a dynamic equilibrium of consensus. The problem, perhaps, is less of a difference between schools and other organisations and more of a

gap between theory and the experience of real world practice. Organisational behaviour may be more context specific and qualitative than has been previously envisaged. The quantitative data of a systems level of behavioural analysis in organisation studies may have limited relevance to the real-world settings of individuals within, (Weiss & Rein, 1970; Argyris,1975; 1982).

The concepts of equilibration and equifinality in the "strong" version of the open systems model help to address the problems of the consensus model. Their roots lie not only in human relations approaches, but also in Lewinian concepts of group dynamics and field theory. These are based in Gestalt psychology and psychoanalysis, (Lewin,1947), whose ideas have helped to increase understanding of human behaviour in situations.

The concepts can be equated with Lewin's concept of "quasi-stationary equilibrium" of the informal system. This is viewed as an individual "life-space" with interdependent opposing forces of inner needs and perceived demands and pressures of the specific situation and its more general background. The life space is in dynamic equilibrium with individual behaviour. Thus, an individual level of behavioural analysis can also acknowledge tensions and stresses as symbolic processes underlying individual behaviour. If group behaviour is assumed as "individual behaviour writ large in organisational terms", (Sofer,1973:703), it can be similarly assumed organisational behaviour is a function of individual behaviours each in dynamic equilibrium with a life space or highly subjective organisational world that cannot be directly observed.

In Lewinian terms, therefore, organisational equilibration is the movement created by the dynamic equilibrium of the inner life space underlying the equilibrium between itself and individual behaviour in the organisation, all pulsating in a continuous process of change in each participant as B=f(P,E). The concept of equifinality claims to represent the importance of human agency in determining the state of equilibration.

As the processes maintaining a state of organisational equilibration cannot be observed directly, it is assumed their effects are demonstrated in the behaviours of the

organisational group. The processes are not considered as latent, unconscious meanings - more as meanings manifested in behaviour that affects others, but of which the individual is unaware. This view attempts to explain the individual at work as a total person, with psychological socio-emotional needs and feelings as well as knowledge and skills, which affect behaviour.

Thus, the concepts of equilibration and equifinality recognise the importance of both human growth and organisational development for effective work situations. They can also account for the inhibiting effects upon both, of stress and turbulence created by environments with a rapid pace of change: individuals react adversely to external pressures, the tension of which drains the energy for organisational productivity. This suggests an organisation may have to work below its optimum capacity in order to maintain an internal balance between its technological development and individuals' essential humanity.

Although this may be diagnosed by management concerns as a deficit model in terms of the consensus required for organisational health, the inherent conflict created by individual tensions and stresses may also be interpreted more positively and encouraged by management, as necessary motivating factors for a state of "forward change" and development of both individual and organisation.

Lewin's field theory has been influential for conceptualising climate as the "life-space" of the organisational group. His ideas, developed from earlier studies of group dynamics, are concerned with the influence of the psychological "life-space" - or informal system - upon a group's motivation and behaviour observed in the formal system. His laboratory-type experiments showed a direct relationship between group atmosphere or climate determined by leadership style and the tension levels in groups of boys in their hobby clubs, (Lewin, Lippitt & White, 1939).

Climate in Lewinian terms, therefore, is an individual, psychological construct or life-space mediating individual behaviour "writ large in organisational terms", (Sofer,1973). As a qualitative life-space of dynamically integrated properties of

individuals, it cannot be identified as independent linear dimensions and so is categorised as a nominal type - e.g., authoritarian, democratic or laissez-faire - to reflect its complexity. The organisation has to be experienced in order for the individual "life space" and behaviour to react reciprocally. This conceptualisation of climate, therefore, can only be valid for organisational participants. It cannot apply to "outsiders".

Lewin's choice of laboratory style methodology, however, is inappropriate for explaining behavioural reactions in terms of individual socio-emotional needs and tensions of the informal system. Although he claims his experiments show climates exist as psychological constructs whose realities can be studied empirically, there are methodological issues with scientific method procedures that affect the interpretation of data to explain the construct as conceptualised.

The procedures of laboratory-type experiments, for example, are "one-way", with "outside" researchers whose purposes are not disclosed to individuals who have only "subject" status. Such procedures do not reflect the recognition of human agency in the construct's conceptualisation.

Furthermore, experiments cannot elicit the individual meanings of the tensions underlying the observed behaviours of the formal system: these can only be inferred from the group behaviour. Experiments cannot provide accounts of individual meanings in members' own terms. Thus, an "outside" researcher can only infer meanings from the controlled observation of subjects' reactions and data interpretation needs to be checked for its validity with those involved in the study. The validity of interpretation is also affected by the control of the experimental design that can alter the conditions of the natural settings used as contexts for the experiment, and influence the behaviour to be observed. The validity of interpretation is also influenced by researchers' assumptions that formulate the problem for the experimental procedure, and its hypothesised causality. Climate categorisation and its implications for social policy-making decisions may reflect, therefore, the "outside" researcher's own values.

There are also problems with the level of analysis assumed by this approach that conflict

with the conceptualisation. It is assumed a group level of analysis of climate is isomorphic with climate as an individual level attribute. The observation of group behaviour is a very different task from observing the behaviours of each individual in the group. There is no explanation to account for the transformation of individual behaviours into a group gestalt. The group level of analysis is, therefore, inappropriate for explaining a psychological construct with organisation-wide force, as an individual attribute. What is needed is an individual level of analysis that can demonstrate the relationship of individual meanings underlying behaviour and explain how these link into an organisation-wide force. The experimental method is inappropriate for assuming an individual level of analysis, eliciting underlying meanings and explaining the relation of these to observed behaviours.

Systems theory frameworks, therefore, may have provided expedient models for conceptual definitions of the climate construct according to the assumptions underlying researchers' intentions and the wider policy-making purposes of their research. They have been supported by assumptions underlying the positivist and empiricist techniques of the scientific method paradigm and have enabled researchers to substitute problems of method for theoretical and conceptual concerns for the construct's complexity as a research heuristic. Symbolic processes underlying observed behaviours may have been assumed, but have been only inferred by a methodological rigour concerned with perceived behaviours at an organisational level of analysis. Even those definitions of climate as an individual attribute that have grappled with the symbolic aspects underlying the construct in terms of the dynamics of socio-emotional needs, have been constrained by the paradigm: conceptual definition and method have been in conflict by their different levels of analysis. The method has not captured the real-world and, perhaps, qualitative complexity of individuals in school organisational practice to reflect the conceptualisation of climate as a psychological construct.

The following chapter considers an approach to conceptualising climate whose essence is contained in its method and which challenges the systems model and empiricist techniques adopted to explain the construct so far. A phenomenological perspective of climate argues there are potentially as many climates as there are individuals in an

organisation. It argues the climate construct is not a global, pervasive, "out-there" reality, whose characteristics can be differentially perceived in organisational behaviour; neither does it exist as an abstract psychological construct waiting for a mind to behold it. Climate is immanent: it is grasped in an act of reflective consciousness. It does not exist apart from the momentary conscious experience of beholding it. Thus, the construct can exist only as a set of multiple realities in people's minds, each a unique and private interpretation - as a "felt experiencing", (Gendlin,1978-79), of the organisation that confers meaning before even being explicated into words or concepts. The phenomenological method assumes that, as consciousness is universal, it can be analysed as a rigorous philosophical science. It is possible, therefore, the nature of the climate construct can be analysed as acts of pure consciousness.

CHAPTER 2
ISSUES: PHENOMENOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

Phenomenological perspectives of organisations contrast sharply with those based upon social systems models and the structural-functionalist paradigm. Their roots lie in the idealist philosophy of Husserl, (1859-1938), the founder of phenomenology. Husserl rejected the central tenet of empiricism - that an objective world pre-exists individual actions as an orderly arranged, social structure. He argued instead for the priority of the individual in determining an objective social world. Husserl also rejected the idea that experimental science in its rigorous concern for objectivity, should divorce the social world from its members by eliminating subjective or introspective elements from its analysis. To Husserl, the objective social world is constituted by the subjective meanings of individuals' everyday experiences.

He argued experimental methods that investigate individual behaviour in the natural world are bound by nature's causal laws of time and space. Such data, therefore, is relative to a specific era or circumstance, and as such can only provide a perspective of social reality. More importantly he argued empiricism glosses over primordial consciousness in individuals. Individual consciousness is not subject to nature's causal laws of time and space. It is not an event, but a fundamental medium or process that constitutes all forms of being. It is universal and unchanging in individuals. Time and space are merely social constructs used by consciousness as schemes to impose order upon the natural world. An analysis of the structure of consciousness in meaning-conferring acts can thus provide a cogent alternative to experimental data: it can provide the basis for rigorous systematic investigation of an objective social world grounded in the immediate "felt-experiences", (Gendlin,1962), of individuals.

Husserl's phenomenology, therefore, assumes people construct the meaning of social reality in their own consciousness as a result of interpreting and acting upon their experiences. The mind is not the passive recipient of impressions from the outside world, but is an active process of constructing a social world. To be conscious at all, is

to be conscious of something: consciousness is always directed beyond itself - it is never just conscious.

Husserl argues phenomenology's first task is to clarify and purify the essential nature of this process that constitutes the absolute knowledge of an objective world. To do this rigorously, the phenomenological method must step outside and "reduce" the "natural attitude" of the social world to show how this world is accomplished - i.e., it must first explain the process by which people, through direct experience, come to believe in the universal and unchanging nature of a social world they claim exists. Phenomenological analysis must precede experimental methods which leave untouched the implicit concepts of consciousness that influence the objectivity of empirical analysis. Husserl's phenomenology, therefore, while arguing for the restoration of philosophy as a central discipline, points to the dual nature of the social world as both product and process of individual consciousness.

Weber, (1864-1920), like Husserl, a follower of Kant's idealism was more concerned for a "sociological attitude" towards everyday life. His sociology also claimed no capacity to establish final truth. He assumed social life to be different from the natural world and thus required different methods for its analysis. His "interpretative sociology" was a methodology formulated to give direction to sociology as a science and so elevate it from ideology and metaphysical speculation. At the same time it was a protest against positivism alone as a methodology for enquiry about social life.

Like Husserl, he argued empirical methods of the natural sciences are inappropriate as people are not equivalent to physical objects whose behaviour is determined by outside forces. Instead they are free agents, with minds able to choose alternative directions. People organise their thoughts about their social worlds through their experiences of the social world. Their minds can categorise and order the events they experience with concepts used as symbols to direct and shape their conduct. In this way they construct meaning, coherence and predictability to the world around them. Thus, people never confront reality directly, but always through the use of interpretative schemes. Their world is a complex of meaning that must be interpreted in its different contexts before it

is known. Their actions - as behaviours with attached meanings - are, therefore, to be distinguished from the external observation of mere reactive behaviour.

The complex phenomena of the social world consist of the commonalities or general categories of meanings that individuals attach to their experiences, and enact in their behaviour. All kinds of social relationships and structures,therefore, can be reduced to elementary forms of individual behaviour. As typical or universal meanings, people's actions can thus be subjected to empirical verification.

Weber's methodology, therefore, accounts for human agency without abandoning the empirical search for pattern and order. Methods must be appropriate for understanding people's behaviour as well as to the task of predicting events. More strongly than Husserl, Weber simultaneously endorses causal explanation for accuracy in predicting behaviour to control events, as well as explanation by attempting to understand people's actions. Interpretative and positive approaches are complementary: understanding logically precedes but must be followed by causal explanation.

Weber's method of interpretative sociology is, therefore, a bridge between Kant's idealism and positivism. To interpret social action researchers must act in a similar way to individuals in everyday life by organising and classifying the subjective meanings that people give to their actions as a categorising process. Their analyses must move from individuals' subjective meanings to an objective context where these are typified in social behaviour.

Thus, the social scientist cannot be a detached and objective observer of social behaviour, but must first attempt to understand the language and actions of individuals acting in society to discover how people define their data. The facts must first be simply and accurately described in terms of the everyday language of individuals.

This data is then clarified in a step by step analysis of logical categorisation that reveals the process through which individuals' actions acquire their generalised meaning in

specific contexts. The researcher makes sense of partial expressions by categorising them as concepts. The concepts are not necessarily those used in everyday language but encompass these meanings. The researcher's interpretation is assumed to agree with individual statements. Systematic categorisation of the content of the accounts of successive groups of individuals in a specific context, seeking their similarities and differences, becomes typified or generalised for that context, and can be empirically verified in the social behaviour.

Thus, Weber's interpretative sociology is a process methodology using the logical apparatus of concept formation to explain the movement from the content of subjective meanings described by people's accounts to the objective, typical meanings underlying social behaviour in a given context.

Schutz, (1899-1959), applied Husserl's idea of individual consciousness as the origin of meaning to the problems he encountered with the logical structure of Weber's interpretative sociology, to recast its foundations on phenomenological principles. While Schutz accepted Weber's non-positivist views that research methods must interpret actions in terms of their subjective meanings, he considered Weber had not provided an adequate account of how action comes to have meaning and of how actors understand each other. The ambiguity was so considerable as to seriously weaken the foundations of interpretative sociology as a methodology.

Schutz argues Weber provides only an external and mechanical account of action - behaviour to which meaning is only attached as a predicate of action. Weber's concept of "verstehen" or understanding views subjective meaning and action as process and product. The interpretative and positive approaches used for these however are not complementary: they are competing explanations, with different assumptions about the nature of man and society. Actions, he argues, cannot be detached from meanings by the researcher: meanings and actions are integral to the individual.

Weber's methodology, he continues, also considers the meaningful act as an irreducible unit. This, however, is only a label for a highly complex process of underlying

meanings that originate in individual consciousness and have different levels that can be interpreted at different starting points by others. Thus, there is a radical difference between the meanings of individuals' direct experience and others' indirect experience as interpretation of this. Weber's concept of subjective meaning does not distinguish between the point of view of the individual and the researcher's interpretation.

Rather than taking for granted the social world has meaning, therefore, Schutz argues research methods should investigate more thoroughly the general principles of the process of meaning-attribution itself - not the content of what people say and do, for these are human constructs - but the methods according to how people organise their experiences and come to believe in these constructs as norms. Instead of explaining the movement from a description of subjective meaning to an objective context, researchers should explain the method underlying the movement from the subjective meanings of direct experience (how individuals order experience) to a context of objective meaning (how researchers makes sense of individuals' ordering of experience).

Schutz, therefore, suggests three levels of analysis for researchers' explanation of action, all of which are phenomena of consciousness. The first step is to describe the order actors impart to their vivid context-specific experiences using concepts derived from their ordinary everyday language that has meaning for these practices. These are "first order" categories.

The second step is to identify the regularities in how people describe the methods or rules they use to accomplish a sense of order. Although grounded in their experiences, the concepts can be distinguished from their everyday language, but can be seen to return to these first order categories by individuals when translated into practice. These "second order" concepts are a set of related statements which depend on their context for their precise meaning. They are developed for the specific purpose of explaining to others the researcher's own understanding of the process by which their subjects' ordering takes place. The systematic re-ordering tells the code of how members make sense of their world, as an unfolding process of how the linkage is accomplished. It is the researcher's theoretical explanation of why broad categories of actors share an

appearance of social order. As an objective context of meaning it must make transparent the reasoning and communication of both researcher and actor in the social encounter. Objectivity exists therefore in the social relationships of people. It is the understanding of the meaning an experience has for another person in their terms, not the researcher's own interpretations of the same experience.

Thus, in contrast to Weber's interpretative sociology, the researcher's purpose is to not only clarify and categorise the content of another's experience, but also to intentionally grasp in an act of consciousness, the other's point of view in order to understand the processes underlying their ordering of that experience. Researchers cannot assume their interpretation is the same as their subjects so they must check continuously for their agreement in order to reach an objective context of meaning.

As a third step researchers must test their theory by subjecting it to exact analysis. They must explicate the basis by which they have structured the regularities of how people accomplish a sense of order, pattern and predictability in social encounters in certain contexts. By comparing contexts, the validity of the interpretation is judged not so much by appeal to the "hard data" of scientific knowledge, but by its recognition by subjects as consistent with their experiences. "Researchers must be able to demonstrate to the natives that they can talk as they talk, see as they see, feel as they feel, do as they do", (Mehan & Wood,1975:228).

Thus, no universal laws are assumed to cause social behaviour. Action is caused by people's reflexive monitoring of their own intentions. The explanation of action is to be found in the reasons subjects provide in accounts of their actions. The process of categorising meanings is assumed to reflect the process by which individuals order their everyday experiences into types some of which are also abstract and anonymous. They fit these into a hierarchy of other objective contexts making up their total complex of background knowledge. Society is thus "in the mind".

In contrast to empiricism that thinks of social order as patterns external to the individual, Schutz's phenomenology encourages researchers to think of consciousness

as the basis of social order. Stemming from his views, phenomenological sociologists or ethnomethodologists are less interested in the content of what people say and do, than stepping outside the "natural attitude" of these accounts of everyday life and showing the manner or form of how people make their lives consistent, coherent and methodical through their interaction with others.

Such views however have aroused considerable controversy. While some sociologists welcome the closer attention to the formation of meanings underlying actions, others are critical of the preoccupation with subjective self-report data. The individual's "unique point of view" for making sense of the world is considered trivial and mundane and gives rise only to "common-sense" conclusions. This charge of subjectivism is tantamount to saying phenomenology has failed in its attempt to transcend the subject-object dualism of individual and society.

There is also criticism of the constitutive role of "talk". It is argued phenomenology is more a philosophical and linguistic world than a world of action. There is not enough concern for action. This arises not only from Schutz's phenomenology but also from Wittgenstein's philosophy of language that argues the meaning of the word is determined by how it is used in practice.

The main source of contention with phenomenology, however, is its claim that an objective reality does not exist. Orderly social life is not a fact but is created in the talk members exchange with each other. It does not become institutionalised or generalised to act as a constraint for it exists only "in the mind" as a sense of social structure.

The denial of generalising concepts has critical implications on a number of counts. For example, it is argued a generalising and comparative function is needed to capture the network of concepts of the shifting here-and-now realities, to provide an explanation of why one set of accounts is as it is, or accepted in place of another. If all social meanings depend on their context, and change with different contexts, it is difficult to conceptualise any common characteristics across social structures or social relationships of society. Individuals cannot link problems to experience gained elsewhere.

Denial of generalising concepts also raises problems of validity for the role of the researcher. Apart from the problem that views are only relative to the views of others' interpretations, there are difficult epistemological and methodological questions related to how one can have knowledge of others' minds; to fall back on others' pre-knowledge by organising their subjective constructions of reality, is to go back on the road to reification of positivist structures - of imposing an interpretation from without. Alternatively, if others' reality is not organised, then every subject is their own researcher and there is no need for interpretation. Also, at what stage does the researcher accept the presence of common characteristics among the multiple realities of others in the re-ordering and categorising of the data?

Finally, it is argued enquiry is delimited without taking into account the macro-social processes that also influence social contexts. The activities that create the contexts are not the same as individual procedures for making those contexts intelligible. The mind is not self-sufficient, consciousness is not autonomous from social, political and economic conditions, (Giddens 1976:40). Phenomenology cannot take account of social forces of which the individual is unaware.

Despite these criticisms, however, the phenomenological perspective with its accompanying methodology has implications for organisational studies, especially those concerned for humanistic approaches to organisational change and development. In practice though, there are few organisational studies based wholly on the perspectives of phenomenological sociology. They assume varying and more moderate interpretations.

Applied to organisational theory, the phenomenological perspective generally views organisational reality as a highly personal and mutable construct "owned" by the self. Cognitive processes are assumed to be transcended. Each person has a unique experience of the same organisation and creates personal meaning structures of this world for fulfilling purposes and acting out intentions. What appears as organisational reality is an "invented" social reality that is accomplished by the methods in which

individual consciousness orders experiences as meaningful structures of this reality.

With its emphasis upon the uniqueness of configuration, there can be no assumption of a single "out-there" organisational reality as a determining force upon individuals as in the social systems model, though this is not to deny the existence of one. It is argued it exists in some form - as invariants, cores, deep structures, or universals - in order for people to experience it. This, however, is not the point or focus of concern for phenomenological perspectives of organisations: the essential organisation exists in the meaning an organisation has for each individual member. If there are insights to be gained, organisations are to be understood as multiple realities rather than predicted.

As the multiple realities are differing, possibly anarchic perspectives of organisations, the phenomenological perspective can also account for contradiction as a source of change for organisational development. Schools, for example, may solve problems created by conflicting viewpoints and interests in two ways. They may either face up to them and resolve them, or they may do everything to avoid the conflict by a process of accommodation - make a conscious effort to reach agreement by understanding - where members with quite contradictory purposes may work together harmoniously. In either case change is invoked, as relationships are negotiated and the negotiations lead to some sort of contract. The effective changes it is claimed occur in individuals, not the group nor the management. In this sense the phenomenological perspective may be described as a conflict model.

Barr Greenfield's, (1975), phenomenological perspective of organisational theory is an example of promoting change by a method of understanding. He recommends change along more humane lines for educational administrators who are concerned with organisational development in schools. He argues the case for viewing organisations phenomenologically at the expense of the systems perspective, though his method of understanding appears to be closer to Weber's interpretative sociology than to phenomenological sociology. Indeed, his position is perhaps innovative as an association of phenomenology and Weberism, for he appears to accept an institutionalising and generalising function in his phenomenological approach. Thus, he

does not follow the logic of the phenomenological position which ultimately questions the validity of the role of the researcher, (Hoyle,1976).

Barr-Greenfield points to the uniqueness and consciousness of individual feelings, actions and intentions as the "stuff of which organisations are made" - as social inventions. Individual and organisation are inextricably intertwined. Individuals' anarchic views, therefore, must be taken into account in an attempt to understand the "real life" complexities of people in school contexts rather than attempt to predict and control their behaviour. He emphasises a clinical approach in training educational administrators, rather than training them to recognise the abstractions of organisational goals more clearly. He thus provides insights into the dynamics of how individuals and organisations may relate to each other for creating change in existing school realities.

Similar phenomenological assumptions can also be seen in the counselling client-centred approach to organisational consultancy for educational institutions, (Gray 1979b), where researcher and organisational client together, are involved as active participants in the "action research" and where the important element is listening to the meaning given by the other, defining the situation within that experience and responding to what is being said. Although the method of understanding emphasises the empathic role of the researcher, orderly social life that exists as a fact must be assumed in order for problems - some of which are perennial - to be discussed.

Similarly, a phenomenological perspective of organisational climate assumes the construct as the multiple realities formed by members' from their social encounters and relationships with other members, as symbols to make sense of their organisational world. It is possible, therefore, for there to be as many different organisational climates as there are individuals in the organisation. As unique configurations, or "manifestations of human consciousness" climates are assumed not to exist as structures in a concrete sense, and so cannot predict or determine organisational behaviour. The purpose of such studies is to understand climates in order to facilitate the management and administration of change and organisational development.

As a research heuristic, therefore, climate must be conceptualised as a personal construct - as an individual attribute. Schneider, (1973), for instance, argues "the concept of climate...must be described as personalistic; climate is an individual perception. There must be no attempt to restrict the climate definition to perceptions shared by members of a work group or organisation....what is psychologically important to the individual must be how he perceives his work environment, not how others might choose to describe it."

He warns, therefore, that the data collection and its analysis should be appropriate for the level of explanation. Assumptions underlying empirical methods for measuring perceptual data are inappropriate for this psychological conceptualisation. Subjects must be members of the organisation with direct experience of the processes under consideration. Researchers must make the conscious effort to understand members' accounts in their terms of their experiences of social encounters. Individual interviews, therefore, are preferred to observation techniques. Group questionnaires and statistical techniques are inappropriate. Whether the data of this method of understanding can be generalised across other organisations depends upon the phenomenological position which the researcher should perhaps justify.

Thus, while both open systems theory and phenomenological perspectives of organisational climate consider the individual in an organisational context, they lie in stark contrast in respect of their assumptions of their model of man. Neither can be said to account fully for the complex and relative nature of organisational reality. While both incorporate individual and social antecedents of behaviour into their analyses, both still view the social and the psychological as basically discrete entities. Both approaches have their strengths and weaknesses. Systems theory and positivism stress "event-causality" of organisational behaviour; they are concerned with consensus, social pattern and order. Phenomenological perspectives emphasise the priority of an individual who preexists social factors rather than one on whom such factors can impinge. They show more concern with philosophy and language to explain individual meanings underlying action than with the action itself. They are also more concerned with change which can be in terms of conflict or of understanding. To some researchers

both approaches are valuable and complementary; to others they are mutually exclusive. Both approaches overlook the possible social origins of all personal experience that are embodied it is suggested, in the structure and content of language, (Lyons, 1970; Bernstein, 1971). Thus, it seems a worthwhile area of enquiry could be the dialectic between creating, controlling or maintaining, and re-creating the organisational realities of climates. The problem lies in the appropriate methodology for reflecting this conceptualisation.

In detailing systems theory and phenomenological approaches, issues arising from different assumptions of the inter-relationship of individual and organisation and the effect of this upon the measurement, data analysis, and level of explanation have been made manifest. The confusion goes some way to explaining the current ambiguity surrounding the appropriate level of individual or organisational analysis of the organisational climate construct and its use as a research heuristic. The following chapter identifies the confusion created by these issues by examining some traditional climate studies.

CHAPTER 3

ISSUES: TRADITIONAL STUDIES OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

Most traditional studies of climate have accepted the assumptions of the open systems model and structural-functional paradigm. Thus, they have assumed the construct perhaps unquestioningly, as a preexisting, global and multi-faceted organisational attribute that influences members' organisational behaviour. The universal nature of its characteristics within and across organisations in all cultures has also been assumed. For example, school climate studies have tacitly assumed the characteristics apply to all teachers, despite their position in the role hierarchy and also perhaps, to all pupils despite their age, gender, or ability.

Although Lewin's climate studies defined climates as types, the vast majority of climate studies have chosen to assume the characteristics exist as a set of independent dimensions on a linear continuum whose values vary from organisation to organisation, or school to school. The dimensions are measured by a set of Likert-type questionnaire items administered to organisational members. Their responses to a large pool of items - sometimes developed from interviews with the candidates, at other times speculated by the researcher - are coded and subjected to factor analysis in order to identify the underlying dimensions and the items that tap these best, (Poole & McPhee,1983). The questionnaire as a perceptual measure dominates traditional climate studies. Researchers have relied upon methodological rigour in the construction, procedure and statistical analysis of these measures to provide the objectivity required for explaining climate as an organisational attribute.

The proponents of this model and paradigm have assumed that if the common characteristics can be identified, a happy climate can be manipulated and controlled by management strategies. A happy climate they have assumed, is a consensus climate: management personnel and employees work towards open agreement between and within role hierarchies. Consensus - and hence a happy climate - increases organisational effectiveness while catering at the same time for the socio-emotional needs of members in a work environment. Individual feelings and reactions are

assumed to be concomitant with perceptions of the organisational climate.

Measures therefore, to identify the nature of climate in educational institutions have been developed primarily from a management perspective, as diagnostic instruments for the purposes of educational managers and administrators - the initiators of organisational change and development. Generally the measures have stressed consensus concepts such as group morale, job-satisfaction, perceived leadership style, participant communication and decision-making in organisational interaction. Such concepts assume that greater democracy, human rights and freedom of choice are the foundations on which the trust and confidence associated with the consensus required for change, can be built.

There appears to be widespread general agreement among climate studies about the relevance of the dimensions tapping such concepts. For instance, Campbell et al, (1970), in a synthesis of earlier studies of industrial and business organisational climates, describe four major dimensions that have emerged: 1: individual autonomy - or freedom of choice for decision-making and exercising initiative; 2: degree of control and the means of imposing this; 3: reward - relative emphasis on positive rewards rather than punishments; 4: consideration or supportiveness by superiors. Campbell et al, (1970), point out that these few factors probably indicate the list of dimensions is incomplete. However, although Payne & Pugh, (1976), suggest the additional factor of "innovativeness" as does Moos, (1973), and, accepting it may be necessary for school climate studies to take account of school specific factors such as "intellectuality", there is clearly a degree of agreement among researchers about the relevant dimensions of the climate construct.

Despite this agreement though, it has been difficult to generalise measures of climate beyond the organisations where they have been developed. Factor structures have been found to vary across different organisations. It appears that climate is closely tied to the concerns of particular organisations. Even within organisations perceptions of climate have been found to vary. Poole & McPhee, (1983), report there have been variations not only across different units such as different hierarchical levels of organisations,

(Schneider & Bartlett,1970), but also within these units the degree of agreement has often been quite low, (Johnston,1976; Jones & James,1979). For a consensus measure of climate as a global organisational attribute, such evidence is worrying. Not only does it cast doubts on the validity and reliability of the measure, but upon the assumed veridical nature of the construct itself. Climate measures also have been found to be redundant with other constructs that measure work experience such as job-satisfaction, (James & Jones,1974). These methodological problems have challenged the consequent usefulness of such measures for diagnosing management processes to facilitate organisational effectiveness.

The conflicting data raises issues that challenge the continued use of the social systems model and the positivist paradigm for identifying the climate construct as a quantifiable organisational attribute. These issues relate partly to the role of the "outside" researcher for the construct's conceptualisation and operational definition. They also relate to the adequacy of researchers' reliance upon rigorous methodological procedures of data collection and statistical analysis for interpreting and explaining the construct. Together, they raise conceptual issues of whether the construct can be justified as a global organisational attribute with commonly perceived characteristics; whether it can be quantified as an organisational attribute by consensus measures of individuals' perceptions; and whether it is best described in terms of linear dimensions. The construct may be more appropriately classified in terms of types, it may be context specific and qualitative, or it may exist as a set of multiple realities - the unique configurations of individual participants.

To examine these issues in relation to the climates of schools, this chapter describes the measure developed by the researchers Halpin & Croft, (1963), who first coined the term "organisational climate" in their studies of U.S. elementary schools. Methodological issues are highlighted in the light of extension and replication studies attempting to validate this instrument. These issues are then traced in similar school climate studies by later researchers - Likert, (1967), Finlayson, (1973), Stern, (1970), Rutter, (1979), to challenge the commonly held assumptions of the nature of the construct.

1: ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE, (OCDQ), HALPIN & CROFT, (1963).

Halpin & Croft's, (1963), Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire, (OCDQ), for assessing the organisational climates of elementary schools is one of the most significant of all climate studies. As the first researchers in this field, they invented a language for distinguishing the "feel" of different schools in terms of teachers' morale arising from their headteacher's perceived leadership style. It was intended for diagnostic use by educational administrators. Many school organisation studies have adopted their rationale and instrumentation. Thomas, (1976), for example, cites the use of the OCDQ in at least 8 different countries.

For Halpin & Croft, their management perspective of the construct as a global, multi-faceted, organisational attribute is analogous to individual personality - "personality is to the individual what organisational climate is to the school". The ambiguity of their operational definition as the "general flow of behaviour and feeling within a group", (Halpin,1966), reflects the amorphous qualities associated with such abstract terms as "ethos", "spirit", "atmosphere" or "culture". Although this ambiguity may justify climate's status as a construct by going above and beyond a composite measure of the characteristics of a situation, (MacCorquodale & Meehl,1948), it may have encouraged other researchers to define specific characteristics they considered more important for describing the construct. This has resulted in the plethora of operational definitions contributing to the current confusion, about which characteristics are most appropriate for defining the construct, and to whom these apply.

Halpin & Croft assume the concept of group morale underpins their global construct of organisational climate. Group morale indicates the openness or authenticity of behaviour, as the level of trust and confidence established between the leader and the group members in organisational interaction. These criteria create an organisational climate that encourages human dialogue so that all members understand and accept the reasons for change, and work co-operatively and productively towards progress.

To assess the degree of this understanding, Halpin & Croft's questionnaire measures teachers' perceptions of the nature of the interaction that exists between and among two role groups of different status in the school - the headteacher and the teachers. They assume teachers' perceptions of their headteacher's leadership style as well as their perceptions of social relationships with other colleagues taps the interaction defining the construct. No allowance is made for status hierarchies among the roles of teachers themselves. Neither are pupils involved in the data collection. Halpin & Croft in assuming the global multi-faceted nature of the construct, also assume - perhaps conveniently - the general nature of teacher-teacher and headteacher-teacher interaction spans role hierarchies as well as pupils in order to account for all members of a school to "feel" the climate. However, teachers in different status hierarchies may perceive status-specific characteristics that are meaningless to other role groups. Similarly, pupils' perceptions may not confirm their teachers' views.

The 64 items of the OCDQ questionnaire are based upon an earlier Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire, (LBDQ), that Halpin & Croft developed from interviews with air crews. They assume, therefore, that leadership styles and group interaction have commonly perceived characteristics regardless of the nature of their organisational context. They also assume statistical techniques can explain the measure's construct validity as an organisational attribute based upon teachers' individual perceptions of these characteristics.

For example, by factor analysis of the data from an original item pool of 1000 questions given to 1151 respondents in 71 elementary schools, Halpin & Croft identified 8 relatively independent dimensions as indices of the organisational climate of a school in terms of teachers' perceptions - 4 perceived headteacher behaviours (Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideration) and 4 perceived teacher-teacher behaviours (Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy). In further statistical analyses the dimensions of "Esprit" and "Thrust" were identified as the best indicators of "openness" or "authenticity" between leader and group member.

For example, with each school they constructed a school profile by converting the sub-

test raw scores into standard scores twice: normatively - across the total sample of 71 schools to plot profiles so dimensions could be compared within schools; and ipsatively - taking the standard scores of the eight subtests in each school and standardising these again with respect to the mean and s.d. of all eight profile scores for each school. This double standardising technique enabled them to examine the relationship between scores on sub-tests, with the differences among the means of the sub-test scores for each school held statistically constant. Thus, the inter-school and intra-school variance were not confounded. However, although standardisation of variables to zero mean and unit variance is recommended in most accounts of clustering, this can have a serious effect of diluting differences between groups on the variables which are the best discriminators, (Everitt, 1980, p.10).

To account for the move from an individual to a school-group level of analysis, Halpin & Croft carried out a further factor analysis with the eight standardised sub-test scores of each of the 71 school profiles. They identified six major patterns of factor loadings among the profiles, as types or integrated clusters of the dimensions, and categorised each school profile according to these six constellations. Thus, by the use of first and second order factor analysis it can be claimed Halpin & Croft statistically controlled the change in level of analysis from climate as an individual attribute of teachers, to climate as an organisational attribute: the dimensions of the "first order" item analysis reflect the climate construct as an individual attribute, while the "second order", school-type analysis of these dimensions, is assumed to account for the construct as an organisational attribute. The identification of dimensions, however, is subjective and can reflect researchers' underlying assumptions and hypotheses. Interpretations of "higher order" analyses can therefore conflate the subjective interpretation at the first stage of analysis.

Using those school-profiles in each set with a high loading on only one factor, Halpin & Croft computed six prototypic profiles as "idealised" types. For each set, only four to six of the 71 school-profiles met this criterion. As the other school-profiles loaded on two or three factors, a "profile similarity" score was computed to determine numerically the extent to which each profile was congruent with the prototypic profile

characterising each of the six climate types. In this way they attempted to minimise the subjectivity in defining what constitutes a cluster type.

The six climate types were ranked on a continuum from "open" through "autonomous", "controlled", "familiar" and "paternal" to "closed". Open climates were designated as"good" and closed climates as "bad". Thus, a linear relationship was assumed. "Esprit" as the best indicator of morale, was reflected in descending degrees in each type, and therefore regarded as the key dimension for describing a school's organisational climate. The subjectivity involved in defining the climate types, and the attendant assumption of an open-closed continuum is questioned in extension studies of the OCDQ.

Finally, Halpin & Croft re-examined the factor pattern of schools grouped according to their six climate prototypes, and identified three "higher order" profile-factors. Interpretation of these "higher order" factors, therefore, was based upon their first interpretation of the dimensions composing the profiles, as well as the interpretation of the prototype profiles themselves. This third interpretation also had to account for the definition of each profile factor in terms of two opposite prototypic profiles as the Q-technique of factor analysis loads one positively and the other negatively on the factor. By these statistical techniques a relationship was identified between types in order to define each type in terms of the other:

1: the extreme open-closed types as "authenticity" or "openness" of the leader's and the group members' behaviour in terms of the balance between leadership style and group members' acceptance of this;
2: the less extreme autonomous-paternal types as "satisfaction" in respect to members' perceived balance between social control and consideration of social needs;
3: the closely differentiated paternal-familiar types as "leadership initiation"- the latitude within which the group members as well as the leader can initiate acts.
Halpin & Croft reported their OCDQ was less suitable as an instrument for urban or large schools and also secondary schools as it appeared not to discriminate adequately between them: most were found to be at the "closed" end of the continuum, despite

differences distinctly "felt" by researchers between such schools. Nevertheless, further studies in both U.S. and Australian schools have attempted to validate the measure in such schools.

There has been strong support confirming Halpin & Croft's conceptualised factors as veridical dimensions of the construct across extension studies seeking to validate their instrument. For example, a number of school studies support the assignment by factor analysis of the 64 items to 8 sub-tests with similar sub-test inter-correlations. (Emma, 1964; Brown, 1965; Gentry & Kenny, 1967; Norman, 1965; Roseveare, 1965; Smith, 1966; Vanderlain, 1968; Resurreccion, 1967; Pritchard, 1966; Novotney, 1965,). Stansbury, (1968), also reported a group of items that appeared to measure 'the same thing' as "Thrust" and "Consideration".

Studies, however, have produced conflicting evidence that has questioned the OCDQ's usefulness to educational administrators for promoting school effectiveness. Whilst there has been considerable support, there have also been problems validating the instrument at both the type and dimensional levels of analysis. These problems have fuelled a methodological issue of the relative appropriateness of factor analysis and cluster analysis techniques for defining climates as either dimensions or types. With factor analysis techniques there are as many possible climates as there are dimensional values, but a list of factors may not tap the complexity of the construct. This may affect their ability to account adequately for the variance. Also the list may only reflect researchers' "*a priori*" hypotheses. Alternatively, while cluster techniques can be said to reflect the complex and integrated nature of the construct, and with greater parsimony and clarity describe the relationships between the factors of the first-order analysis, they lack a satisfactory definition about what constitutes a cluster.

Validation studies of the OCDQ reflect the conflicting evidence at the type level of analysis. For example, Carver & Sergiovanni's, (1969), study in large secondary schools, like Halpin & Croft, found that despite perceived differences most of the schools ranged within the closed categories. Similarly, Andrews, (1965), confirmed the OCDQ could not distinguish between open-closed types in urban schools. He goes

on to suggest the six categories are vague and misleading in the breadth they imply, and add nothing to the construct validity of the eight dimensions. Wayne & Hoy K., (1972), in their OCDQ study in secondary schools appear to agree with Andrews, (1965), in concluding "the sub-tests at least, measure important aspects of school climates".

These studies though, assume the stability of the underlying factor structures of the OCDQ measure over time, so that differences can be attributed to changes in school climate. For example, Sanders, Annette; Watkins, J. Foster, (1983), replicated their 1971 school-profile study using OCDQ in 55 of the original schools and noted changes in the structures of the factor-types. They concluded that "internal generative effects" could have caused almost all of the schools to move towards a closed climate. Findings such as these raise the issue of whether the school climate itself changes as indicated by the assumed stability of the factor structures, or whether the factor structures of climate are fundamentally unstable and so resist systematic comparison over time and across different contexts. At what stage - if at all - can researchers assume the stability of factor structures?

Validation studies at the dimensional level have also raised the issue of the minimum number of factors per solution to be resolved and raised further doubts about the stability of the factor structures over time and across different contexts. Alternative conceptualisations of the construct that could take account of its possibly specific nature, have not been forthcoming.

Kenny, (1969), for example, using the OCDQ instrument in 5 exclusively U.S. urban primary schools identified a 4-factor, rather than 8-factor solution: principal's authority, teacher-teacher group perception, non-classroom teacher satisfaction, and work conditions. Hayes, (1972), also questions the validity of the 8-factor solution in a more comprehensive sample of U.S. schools.

Similarly Thomas & Slater, (1972), using a modified version of the OCDQ, also support a 4-factor solution in an extensive Government study of organisational climate

in a representative sample of 72 elementary schools across different states in Australia.

Like Halpin & Croft they extracted 18 eigenvalues >1 from an unrotated solution to account for 58.63% of the total variance. Using Cattell's, (1969), 'scree' test to suggest the number of factors worthy of closer examination, they found a 4-factor solution accounting for 30.04% of the total variance as the most statistically and logically defensible:

1: "Supportiveness" (27 items) included all 9 "Thrust", 5/6 "Consideration", and 7/10 "Esprit" items;

2: "Operation Emphasis" (Leader Behaviour) (15 items) included 6/7 "Production Emphasis" and 4/6 "Hindrance" items;

3: "Disaffiliation" (11 items) included 9/10 "Disengagement" items;

4: "Intimacy" included all 7 of the original "Intimacy" items.

Thus, Halpin & Croft's four perceived leader behaviour dimensions merged with two of the teacher dimensions. The two remaining teacher dimensions remained virtually unchanged. Perhaps this lack of stability reflects more Halpin & Croft's underlying assumptions about the separate groups of leader and teacher involved in a conceptualisation of the construct, than can be maintained by the factor structures. Alternatively, the Australian factor structures could point to the culture-specific nature of the construct. Thomas & Slater concluded that although the OCDQ could discriminate among organisational climates in Australian primary schools, the 4-factor solution appeared to be more logical and significant for teachers in the administration of these schools. On the basis of their assumptions of the stability of factor structures, they recommended further studies to put the factorial basis of the OCDQ beyond dispute.

Brady, (1985), using Thomas & Slater's adapted OCDQ in 20 systematically selected Australian schools a decade later, found their 4-factor solution maintained and, by using Cattell's, (1966), 'scree' test to indicate where the factor variance levelled off, showed the remaining factors to be measuring random error. The break in continuity occurred between the 4th and 5th factor. The factor structure was similar to Thomas and Slater's, with 70% of the items identical - and only items with the highest factor loadings of at

least 2.5 on the relevant factor were included. They also found a continued prominence of factor 'Principal Supportiveness' which they concluded was further testament to Goddard's, (1974), comment "as the Principal, so goes the school". Brady's study, therefore, lends some support to the stability of Thomas & Slater's alternative 4-factor structure over time and contexts in an Australian culture.

Grassie & Carss, (1972), also lend some support to this evidence using the OCDQ in their study of Queensland secondary schools. This study, however, draws criticism from teachers about the construct validity of the measure. Teachers question whether school "tone" and OCDQ measures of it, are synonymous. Grassie & Carss suggest the OCDQ should be amended, or an Australian based instrument developed. Thus, by indicating cross-cultural differences in perceptions of the construct, this data questions the stability of the OCDQ factor structures assumed by Grassie & Carss.

Variation found in teachers' perceptions across role hierarchies in an organisation, has also raised the issue of whether there exists a global climate to be differentially perceived or whether different climates exist in an organisation as multiple realities of individuals. Several studies other than those using the OCDQ, suggest climate is not a unitary perception in organisations. Powell & Butterfield (1978), for example, found that climate varies across sub-groups within organisations. Similarly, Finlayson's, (1973), school environment scales based upon the OCDQ but developed in Britain, takes account of the increasing complexity of both large and secondary school organisations in U.K. by recognising the different perceptions of different status hierarchies - headteacher, heads of departments, teachers, as well as pupils. These studies, however, still assume the global multi-faceted nature of a climate construct with stable factor structures over time and across contexts and cultures. Existing techniques it is assumed, can be simply modified or refined to accommodate differences.

Not surprisingly, Finlayson finds a similar structure of dimensions to Halpin & Croft which, following Deer's, (1980), validation studies of this instrument in Australia, appear to be generally supported as: Interpersonal Relationships, Authority, Problem Orientation, Professional Concern, and Personal Consideration. Australian teachers

though, do not seem to differentiate between professional and personal concern since all items relating to "familiarity" and "friendliness" of Finlayson's "Personal Consideration" factor are lost in their "Professional Concern".

Although these studies provide more support for the universal salience of interpersonal relationships, control, and consideration in conceptualising the climate construct, such dimensions may only reflect "outside" researchers' underlying shared assumptions. This evidence, like that of Thomas & Slater, (1972), and Grassie & Carss, (1972), also suggests differences of meaning in the different factor structures, perhaps highlighted and emphasised by the influence of differing culture patterns.

Concerns about the independence of the climate construct in an organisational model are also reflected in OCDQ studies. For example, Anderson, (1964), and Plaxton, (1965), used OCDQ in several studies in which the sub-test scores correlated significantly with independent measures of leadership styles of headteachers as an individual, not an organisational, construct. Whilst at this first order of analysis, the OCDQ climate dimensions are still assumed as individual attributes, there are clearly problems inherent in disentangling an operational definition of climate as an organisational attribute, from individual work experiences. Similarly Guion, (1973), Payne, Fineman & Wall, (1976), using perceptual measures of climate in organisations other than schools also argue that climate as an individual attribute is redundant with respect to constructs already identified to describe individuals' work experiences such as leadership style, role ambiguity, role conflict and job-satisfaction. Guion,(1973), declares climate as an individual attribute approach is tantamount to a "re-discovery of the wheel". Why does this level of analysis for climate overlap with so many discrete constructs? Johanneson, (1973), concludes that such climate measures....."result in replication of the work attitude literature". Perhaps climate can be reconceptualised as an all-embracing attribute of individuals. But is this sufficient to name it an organisational attribute? Thus, although there has been strong support for the OCDQ dimensional profiles, there is also concern for its overlap at this level of analysis with other individual measures of work experiences.

Reflections upon the validation and extension studies of the OCDQ challenge the appropriateness of the assumptions and procedures of the empirical approach for conceptualising the climate construct. The principal concerns with the OCDQ and its related studies are its assumptions of the construct's global, multi-faceted nature as an organisational attribute, its vulnerability to "outside" researchers' assumptions and *a priori* hypotheses, its seemingly unquestioning reliance upon statistical models and techniques to identify objectively, relevant characteristics - which could account for more variance - and to its assumptions of the stability of its factor structures over time and across contexts. Although there is a broad measure of agreement in the identified characteristics, these may owe their existence more to researchers who share similar assumptions. These researchers appear to have given little consideration to the possibility of alternative conceptualisations to explain the conflicting evidence. For example, the dimensional profiles have been accepted as independent attributes of climate despite their apparent overlap with other constructs. Although the climate types as organisational attributes have been criticised as too ambiguous and too subjectively determined, alternative attempts to account for the true complexity of the climate construct have been unforthcoming by this approach. The possible specificity of the climate construct has been ignored.

(2) ALTERNATIVE MEASURES OF SCHOOL ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

Other climate measures of educational organisations have also adopted the quantitative methods of the "scientific paradigm". Following Halpin & Croft's OCDQ, they have assumed the construct as a global, multi-faceted organisational concept whose organisational characteristics, like the meteorological metaphor, are "relatively enduring" and have a common base across participants. They have assumed all institutional members experience and are influenced by, the varying effects of the construct's underlying characteristics. Like the OCDQ, they also have relied upon perceptual measurement of the construct by means of members' responses to questionnaire items formulated by an "outside" researcher. Also like the OCDQ, the measures have been developed to provide a diagnostic and humanistic tool for organisational development, (OD), by management intervention. They have particularly assumed a usefulness in providing guidelines to improve organisational effectiveness.

The issues to be noted in these measures emphasise those already identified in the construction of the OCDQ, for they relate to the ability of quantitative approaches to explain the true nature of the construct. Like the OCDQ, such issues are the underlying assumptions and interests of "outside" researchers' operational definitions of relevant characteristics of the construct, issues of perceptual measurement involved in its quantification, and issues of the use of multi-dimensional statistical techniques to analyse and explain the construct as either types or sets of dimensions. Therefore, rather than describe the construction and validation of such measures, this chapter identifies and examines these methodological issues as contributors to the current conceptual ambiguity and confusion permeating climate research.

(i) The definitions of "outside" researchers.

Climate researchers' assumptions of the construct as a multi-faceted, global concept are reflected in their general and ambiguous conceptual definitions. For instance, Tagiuri & Litwin's, (1968), well-known and classic definition assumes the construct "can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes)" that

represent a "relatively enduring quality of the total environment" which are "experienced by individuals" and which "influence their behaviour". The characteristics are not specified. Even though Payne and Pugh, (1976), define climate as a "molar concept reflecting the content and strength of the prevalent values, norms, attitudes, behaviour and feelings of members of the social system" these psychological characteristics are still global, vague and non-specific. Climate is assumed as a collective attitude.

Rutter, (1979), assumes the construct of organisational climate is synonymous with the school's ethos. He defines ethos as the "prevalent sentiment of people or community...where...individual actions are less important in their own right, than in the part they play contributing to a broader school ethos or climate of expectations and modes of behaviour". Ethos, together with climate, is also a vaguely defined collective attitude reflected in organisational behaviour.

Similarly, Pettigrew, (1979), assumes the climate construct is synonymous with culture - "an amalgam of beliefs, ideology, ritual and myth, that we collapse into a label of organisational culture". Whether as climate or culture, the term is considered to be a relatively stable, symbolic representation of members' perceptions of their organisational experiences. Thus, the conceptual definitions of climate, ethos and culture have become blurred among researchers in their attempts to capture the global, symbolic aspects underlying organisational behaviour.

A central assumption of climate definitions, however, is that the construct is grounded in members' experiences of the organisation. They assume members' involvement, or at least consultation, in a social context. Similarly, as experience is mediated by communication with other members, climate measures are also based on aspects of organisational interaction. The group is adopted as the unit of analysis to conceptualise the relationship of the individual in an organisational context. To portray this relationship, climate definitions share a concern for balancing members' psychological needs (for autonomy and freedom, reward, consideration and support), with the existing forces and pressures of organisational control as determinants of organisational climate. Thus, they commonly focus upon such individual psychological attributes as

perceptions, beliefs, attitudes and values of members in an organisational context. The context ranges from the controlling features of the physical environment, organisational structure, or the nature of task activities, to behavioural qualities in leadership styles, management communication processes and social encounters with other colleagues.

The definitions infer underlying feelings are also associated with the organisational behaviour, but assume these cannot be assessed directly by behavioural measures. They also share a management perspective: they show either a concern for management relations with teachers in the organising processes that govern school output, or a concern for the management and administration of the school product or output itself, in which pupils or students are more directly involved.

Within these parameters "outside" researchers vary in the relative importance they accord to specific characteristics of organisational interaction in defining climate. They also assume the relevance of these to all members of organisations. These assumptions have contributed to the confusion about which characteristics are relevant in a climate construct, and to whom these apply.

For example, Halpin & Croft identify the perceived leadership styles of headteachers by teachers, as a determining factor of organisational climate. The perceived leadership behaviours are not even derived from school situations, but from previous studies of leadership and group morale in air-crews. Despite the generally held view that headteachers have a very powerful influence in schools, Halpin & Croft's emphasis represents the "outside" researcher's assumptions and hypotheses. To them, important climate characteristics can be identified by qualities inherent in the social interaction of headteachers and staff groups.

Other characteristics however may equally, or more importantly, define the climate construct. For example, Stern et al's, (1970), Organisational Climate Index (OCI), a measure developed entirely in institutions of Higher Education, reflects their interest in the factors influencing student achievement as a determinant of climate. They show concern for the control of purposeful task activities throughout the organisation which,

they assume, affects students' needs for intellectual achievement. Unlike Halpin & Croft's OCDQ, the more social aspects of interaction are reserved for the more self-indulgent, outgoing, interpersonal relationships of school life.

The relative importance of student achievement as a determinant of climate, perhaps reflects Stern et al's concern for accountability, made necessary by the "inflationary pressures of the external community". They base their measure in terms of Murray's, (1938), needs-press factors of personality - a strong theoretical concept with a long history of careful research towards establishing its validity and reliability. By factor analysing observer-based measures of characteristics such as staffing and facilities, achievement standards, student aspirations, extent of student freedom and responsibility, academic climate and social life on the campus, they identify an "intellectual press" factor for determining a school/college climate, in a mix of intellectual, structural, and group process variables. This factor, however, may be specific to educational institutions, since it is a first-order task feature of their existence. Thus, it raises doubts about either its validity, or about the universal nature of underlying climate characteristics.

Likert's, (1967), Profile of a School, (POS), developed from the empirical data of industry and business, like Halpin & Croft's OCDQ assumes the salient characteristics of a school's organisational climate are identified by the degree of control exerted by the leadership style in organisational interaction. The focus, however, unlike Halpin & Croft, is upon the "power-equalisation" to be perceived by school staff in the leader's control of management communication processes such as decision-making. The interaction of these variables is characterised by four types of management systems - not unlike Halpin & Croft's open-closed types - ranging from exploitive - authoritative (closed), through benevolent - authoritative (paternal) and consultative, to the participative (open) assumed as the most effective management system. However, as the four system types are empirically determined elsewhere in organisations other than schools, they may be limited in their number and range for reflecting the climates of school organisations.

Likert also assumes the "power-equalisation" of two-way communication and participative communication processes (as interacting independent variables of leadership style and type of communication process) generates the optimum degree of openness and mutual trust (intervening variables) for effective task accomplishment (dependent variable). The interacting independent variables are assumed to be of the same order and carry the same weight in an analysis. Thus, they can be manipulated to produce the climate or system most appropriate for shaping the organisational behaviour required for the task. The two interacting variables however, may not be equal: one may be more "causal" than another. Halpin & Croft, for example, assume the overriding influence of leadership style regardless of the nature of the task. It is possible that leadership style could be confounded with some, if not all, of the management processes.

To implement the effectiveness of power-equalisation, Likert utilises a notion of link-pin roles in the organisational structure. The role incumbents have status membership of organisational groups but also have access by means of their status, to policy-making groups. They have little command, however, in the management groups. Thus in school organisations, Faculty Heads or Year Heads with leadership responsibility for their respective groups, assume the status of "middle management" to bridge the gap between senior management and assistant teacher. They establish lines of communication for policy implementation. Teachers in middle management roles are assumed to perceive, albeit differentially, the same organisational climate attributes as other teachers, despite the different nature of their organisational experience.

In addition, apart from the issue of whether or not climate is determined by the concept of group morale, the validity of the assumption that it is determined by management communication processes may also be questioned. Can it be assumed, for example, that all organisational members - teachers and pupils - need, or even want, a share in the decision-making processes and two-way flow of information, despite their need for consideration and support from management? Can it also be assumed the formalised participative procedures incorporated into an organisational structure are perceived and experienced as such by teachers? Such processes may be little more than the formal

rules of a game to be observed. Their presence in an organisational structure gives no indication of how they are operated in practice, i.e., of how leaders use latent control strategies in their manifested two-way processes of communication. The underlying meanings of how the processes operate in practice may be more instrumental in determining a construct of climate.

Thus, Likert's definition of climate may have a managerial bias. Power-equalisation may be articulated as a management strategy for retaining the necessary consensus to control the achievement of pre-determined goals. It may reflect more a management concern to cope with the impeding effects of conflict in and among members of the differentiated groups of complex organisations. Each group has its own interests and may need to exert its own pressures upon the organisation for these to be recognised. For example, in secondary school organisations curriculum departments may achieve power and prestige through competing for increased allocation of resources to pursue their own goals. This may correspondingly limit the opportunities of other departments, and so create conflict. Formal communication routes and participative practices emphasise democratic procedures to help reach open agreement.

The different interests and assumptions of "outside" researchers, therefore, can be seen to have influenced understandings of the nature of organisational climate. Despite the differences though, they share a management concern for diagnosing aspects of management relationships that hinder organisational effectiveness in terms of its output or product. They assume a relationship between effectiveness and the construct. Such a link however has not been established.

Strong support for a close relationship between a school's organisational climate and its outcomes is claimed in the study by Rutter et al, (1979), of 12 inner city London schools. Rather than directing its attention to staff relationships, the study focuses on pupils' behaviours and their activities. School ethos or climate is operationalised as 39 school process variables. These are reduced to 7 arbitrarily determined variables of academic performance, teacher actions, pupil rewards and punishments, environmental conditions, extent of pupil responsibility, interpersonal stability, and school staff

organisation. Thus, despite the study's focus upon pupils, similar dimensions of autonomy (pupil responsibility), control (pupil rewards and punishment) and supportiveness (interpersonal stability and teacher actions) may still be identified. These dimensions are assumed to have an interactive causal effect upon a limited number of output variables - pupil behaviour, attendance, delinquency, and academic attainment. Thus, Stern's intellectuality factor (academic performance) can also be identified. Input variations in intellectual ability are statistically controlled, to ensure school process variables account for the variation in school output variables. Thus, it is assumed the study can claim schools differ in their effectiveness, by the nature of their school ethos, or school process variables. The criteria for the selection of these also assumes the school is accountable to the traditional and perhaps retrograde demands of the external community.

The study, however, has been heavily criticised on methodological grounds that relate specifically to the way ethos has been operationalised. For example, its focus is almost exclusively managerial - not upon leadership style or its management processes - but with its overriding concern for effective administration in terms of this limited range of outcome variables. Despite its pupil-centred process variables of their activities and behaviours, the study misses what may arguably be seen as the central core of a school's enterprise - the teaching and learning experiences relevant to teachers' aims, curricula, pedagogy and innovative practice.

The study also misses the texture of meanings gained by pupils from their school experiences. The dimensions do not reflect the quality and depth of meanings that are associated with the commonly recognised and intuitive "feel" of those who experience school organisations. In the pursuit of objectivity, definition of the construct appears to have been limited by the available techniques. The number of organisational variables that can be addressed by these basic dimensions, and the inability of these to portray the whole picture, suggest the methodological procedures are inappropriate for conceptualising the complexity of the climate construct.

Also, it cannot be assumed that controlling the pupil input variables leaves the school

process unaffected by prior experiences of the pupils, as these can affect individual variance in say, social and academic expectations during the school process. Neither can it be assumed that individual variance is accounted for by the dimension "extent of pupil responsibility". This suggests that the meanings underlying personal histories of individuals may be significant, yet have been ignored, in Rutter-type conceptions of school process or climate.

Also from a methodological standpoint, a true cause-effect relationship of the outcomes in terms of pupil behaviours has a built-in circularity, for it is confounded by using those same pupil behaviours for the independent variables of process. Thus, the claims that organisational climate as a causal variable, may determine organisational effectiveness, remain in doubt.

Halpin & Croft, Stern, Likert and Rutter are cited as examples of "outside" researchers who have formulated definitions of the climate construct in terms of their own assumptions and concerns. The validity of their conceptualisations of climate may be challenged by those involved in school practice, yet they are seemingly ignored by their "outside" researcher perspectives. Their approach, therefore, risks an uncritical view of the conflicting pressures and expectations placed upon schools by the political ramifications of an external system, and the use intended of this data by their social policy-making spheres.

(ii) Perceptual measurement of climate

There are critical, unresolved issues associated with the perceptual measurement of person-situation interaction. Although many climate researchers have adopted this approach (to recognise climate as a variable mediating the organisational environment and individual behaviour), there has been conceptual ambiguity as to how to interpret this data. Researchers have been uncertain whether to define the construct at the individual or the organisational level of analysis, or somewhere in between, in accounting for the interaction of the individual in an organisational context. It is a question of their interpretation of perceptual data. Both the individual and the

organisational levels of analysis present critical problems as conceptualisations for perceptual measurement. Neither captures the spirit of the construct.

For example, James & Jones, (1974, p.1105), contend the perceptual measurement of climate can only account for the construct as a psychological attribute of individuals. It is "a set of summary or global perceptions held by individuals about their organisational environment". As such, they argue, climate is a function of members' subjective interpretations of objective organisational variables and can only be considered as an individual attribute. They recommend that perceptual approaches should refer to a construct of "psychological climate" conceptually distinct from a construct of "organisational climate" which could then be measured objectively. They define "psychological climate" as: "individuals' cognitive representations of their situational events, expressed in terms that represent the personal or acquired meaning and significance of the situation to the individual, (James & Sells 1981)".

Poole & McPhee, (1983), also argue that climate studies where perceiver characteristics are assumed to influence the interpretation of organisational events, only provide data about individuals - not the properties of the organisation itself. They point out that statistical analyses based on this data - such as mean values or dimensions from factor analysis, only provide information about how members feel on average. These statistics, they argue, cannot account for a conceptualisation of climate as a global concept of the organisational environment - a variable with organisational-wide force that mediates organisational behaviour.

However, Poole & McPhee also maintain there are problems in interpreting climate as an individual attribute by such measures. They point to the "convincing" research evidence, already cited (p.61), supporting the construct's redundancy with respect to other constructs described as individual attributes - e.g. leadership and job-satisfaction.

Schneider, (1973), does not agree. He differentiates between climate as an individual attribute and the construct of job-satisfaction. He argues that climate is more concerned with the beliefs people hold about an organisation, while job-satisfaction is more

concerned with their affective reactions. It can be argued, however, that an affective component is also an inherent feature of a construct conceptualised as a meteorological metaphor - perceptions of a prevailing meteorological climate are intrinsically tied to affective reactions of it. For example, a perceived warm and dry climate is associated with happy - or sometimes tense - feelings in individuals. So what is the relationship between the constructs of climate and say, job-satisfaction? Can they be differentiated? Is one nested in the other? If so, which is the one to be subsumed? Interpreting perceptual data of climate as a discrete, individual attribute is therefore, problematic.

Conversely, researchers who interpret perceptual data of climate as an organisational attribute - despite their reliance on statistical analyses - also face critical conceptual problems. Poole & McPhee, (1983), argue these researchers assume climate as a set of organisational variables as seen by members. Members' perceptions are still the critical elements of climate, but the organisational variables have a common basis across individuals in all organisations - climate characteristics are assumed to be universal. Measurement, therefore, is not just an indirect measure of outsiders' perceptions as observations of objective attributes such as the amount, or incidence of graffiti, number of library books, or school size. Measures must tap perceptions of common organisational processes that need to be experienced by members - such as whether the pupils stand up when the headteacher walks into assembly, (King 1973). It is assumed that assemblies - and perhaps pupils and headteachers - are pre-existing organisational attributes common to all schools. Whether pupils stand up or not are perceptions of the incidence of such processes - a function of all members' experience of these. Climate is thus viewed as an organisational variable mediating the objective, organisational variables and members' attitudes and behaviour. This interpretation cannot be equated with either objective, observer-based measures of organisational products or averages of individual perceptions.

Various complex models have been formulated to account for linking individual and organisational levels of analysis by perceptual measurement of climate as an organisational attribute. For example, Indik's model, (1965), links individual perceptions to objective events by two stages. Two processes are postulated -

individual processes and organisational processes. These mediate at different levels of analysis to account for the movement from individual to organisational level of analysis in individual-organisational interaction. The organisational processes' level of analysis could therefore account for climate conceptualised as an organisational attribute. In a similar way, Halpin & Croft, (1963), utilise first and second order factor analysis to conceptualise the difference between the two levels of analysis as dimensions and types: the school profile of dimensions is data at the individual level of analysis, and the six types are assumed at the level of analysis of the school organisational processes.

James & Jones, (1974), however, argue that climate researchers do not distinguish between these intermediate levels of analysis. For example, the levels of analysis among the climate dimensions are not clearly distinct: some dimensions fit more appropriately into categories of the organisation itself; others, such as the "reward" dimension, are more appropriate as individual attributes, as they are attitudinal rather than situational. Dimensions also, only reflect the confusion relating to the status of their contributing items. James & Jones, (1974), therefore, question the criteria for differentiating between some variables (leadership and autonomy) but not others (size, or span of control) which operate at the same organisational level of explanation, in questionnaire items. In addition, they contend that using the same set of data of individual experiences for organisational-level attributes is "logical inconsistency", for stimulus properties are confounded with response properties.

Thus, climate interpreted as an organisational attribute by perceptual measures, also cannot avoid problems. Climate researchers are confused as to whether to interpret the construct as an organisational or as an individual attribute for explaining the variance created by individual differences. Such problems led Guion, (1973), to conclude that perceptual measures of climate must be "more a function of methodological convenience than a deliberate attempt to move to a new construct".

Guion goes on to assert that if researchers choose to interpret climate as an organisational attribute by perceptual measures, then the accuracy of these should be validated against either external objective measures, or by showing consensus (high

mean) of members' perceptions. If, for example, members' responses indicate a dimension of "anomie", this can only be considered an organisational attribute if it is validated by an objective measure of "anomie" (e.g. truancy rates, or incidence of disruptive behaviour), or alternatively, by a high mean value of consensus.

Guion's solution, however, still does not clarify how individual perceptions are marshalled into a "*supra*-personal" organisational attribute with an organisation-wide influence. Poole & McPhee, (1983), argue his criteria are only measures of accuracy or convergence of perceptions. As measures, the data still has to be interpreted and interpretation depends on existing assumptions.

Guion's solution, for example, does not indicate the degree of consensus required for climate to be counted as an organisational attribute. Those who conceptualise climate as a global organisational attribute insist that for climate to be said to exist, there must be a commonly-shared, unitary perception. Conceptualising climate as a molar quality in terms of an open systems equilibrium model does not allow for contradicting perceptions: its assumptions are concerned only with consensus. Contradicting perceptions would challenge the validity of consensus used as a criterion measure of accuracy.

It also may be argued these assumptions do not consider the possible confounding effect of consensus on climate. There is evidence to suggest, for example, that the degree of consensus has an important situational influence, (Blau,1960), affecting behaviour differently from when there is diversity of perception, (Asch,1958; Kelley & Thibaut,1969). Indeed, James & Jones, (1974), go so far as to say that the role of consensus - its influence, or lack of it - might appropriately be considered as the climate construct itself, by going beyond the composite situational characteristics and other redundant measures presently conceived as climate.

Conversely, what is the interpretation of low consensus in perceptual measures of a global organisational attribute? Does it mean there is no climate to be perceived, or does it imply possible contradictions in a perceived climate - such as the differing perceptions

across organisational groups noted by Schneider & Bartlett, (1970)? There is clearly a difference between an organisation with no climate, and one with contradictions in it. The absence of climate suggests a lack of coherence in organisational activities that change or swirl rapidly - perhaps as a series of weathers; a climate with contradictions across groups, suggests the presence of more than one climate, or conflicting views of a unitary climate.

Similarly, what is the interpretation if low consensus on the climate measure contradicts the objective validating measure? To reject either would violate climate as an organisational attribute based upon members' experiences, (Poole & McPhee 1983). Alternatively, low consensus could simply imply the wrong questions have been asked. Likewise, contradiction could suggest an inappropriate criterion measure.

It seems important, therefore, to consider both the agreement and the contradiction in conceptualising the nature of climate. Locating the contradiction might even identify the driving force of change other than the adaptation to a change perceived and controlled by management. Such an approach however, is not possible within the assumptions of an open systems equilibrium model and its managerial bias. The open systems equilibrating model could account for the contradiction and change, but its focus on behaviour does not tap or elicit underlying individual meanings, nor how these might link into an organisation-wide force.

(iii). Statistical techniques for analysing climate.

Reliance upon statistical models to analyse the perceptual data of climate as a multi-variate organisational attribute, is also not without critical problems. Many researchers, for example, depend upon the computer software to make critical decisions leaving the programmes' statistical and computing issues to be rigorously and objectively defined by specialists. The use of such techniques, however, still requires implicit assumptions of the researcher so data interpretation is more subjective than is readily acknowledged.

The reduction of large sets of individual perceptual data for classifying climate as an organisational attribute has been predominantly by means of the techniques of factor analysis and cluster analysis. These statistical techniques have been used to classify climates as either dimensions or types. Whether climates are assumed in terms of dimensions or types is itself an issue of conceptual definition. As noted earlier, climate types refer to integrated sets of properties. As "wholes", these patterns or constellations are the basic units of analysis. Conversely, if climate is assumed as a set of dimensions, each dimension is viewed as an independent variable existing on a linear continuum, with values that vary from organisation to organisation. There are potentially as many climates as the number of the permutations and combinations of dimensions and their values. As such, they supply information about how individuals on average perceive climate. Factor analysis and clustering techniques, therefore, are adopted with the assumptions they provide rigorous objectivity in supporting climate as an organisational attribute. Both techniques, however, raise problems that question assumptions of objectivity.

For example, with factor analysis techniques there are problems of data collection such as selection bias, problems of sampling variability and measurement errors, problems of the data's preparation for input to computer programmes, as well as problems of factor rotation to provide more "meaningful" solutions. All of these challenge the assumed objectivity and can affect the interpretation of the analysis.

One of the most important decisions to be made by the researcher before the analysis is that of selecting the variables to be examined. No set of items constitutes the universe of all potential variables. Therefore, a certain sub-set of items has to be selected. At the same time, a large number of variables is required for an item pool for the underlying factors to be identified. This raises the issue for the researcher about which items to include and which to delete. Deletion of variables can affect the identification by providing too neat a factorial structure that can lead to erroneous conclusions. This suggests the researcher needs to know a great deal about the factorial structure of the variables to be identified and raises questions about whether the technique is a confirmatory or an exploratory factor analysis. For researchers the division is not

always clear-cut. Conversely, inclusion of variables can lead to what has been criticised as "garbage in - garbage out" - the identified factor structure can only reflect researchers' assumptions about predicted outcomes. Thus, it seems no researcher using factor analysis can avoid making a number of judgemental decisions.

Similarly, sampling and measurement errors of factor analysis techniques need to be recognised by researchers. As sample data never reflects exactly the underlying population correlation - the results across samples may vary by having a different mean and s.d. from that of a total or ideal population. Thus, there can be substantial deviations for the correlations of the correlation matrix across samples. This makes it very difficult for the researcher to determine whether differences are due to minor deviations due to sampling variations or due to the lack of an exact fit, as in the case of climate studies, when the instability of the factor structures may or may not indicate a different climate. Although it may be accepted that deviations decrease as sample size increases, when can the researcher be certain that deviations are due to climate differences rather than sampling errors?

Errors of measurement are more easily accounted for by the factor analysis algorithm, as specific or unique variance. This is intended to account for experimenter errors such as faulty observations or interpretations, scaling or recording, or ambiguous instructions to elicit responses. It also includes subjects' errors such as those who disregard instructions, or who only respond according to the social desirability of the response, or perhaps respond with lack of due consideration. As unique variance, however, it is possible these errors could alter the pattern of loadings of variables by which a factor is recognised. Maybe these are random errors, but the measuring instrument could also be systematically biased in that the errors are correlated. Such problems are more difficult to eradicate.

There are also problems for the researcher with the preparation of data for input to the computer programme. There are many methods and variants of extracting factors. For example, the factor analysis of either raw data, or the data of a correlation matrix can affect the results. Also, the researcher may specify whether the diagonal elements of the

correlation matrix may, or may not, be replaced by communality estimates. In addition, there is a problem of the criterion to be adopted for the number of factors to be extracted to account for sufficient variance in covering the true factor space. Researchers must also specify the nature of rotation of factors - whether factors, for example, are orthogonal - that is independent, or oblique - overlapping factors, as if accounting for a conceptual definition of climates as types.

Thus, it can be noted that with factor analysis techniques, the researcher is involved in certain subjective decisions that challenge the objectivity claimed by the empirical paradigm. Often these distinctions are not acknowledged by researchers in their data analysis and interpretation.

Similarly there are problems to be encountered with cluster analysis techniques. There are problems, for example, in defining what counts as a cluster - and the meaning of this - in a mass of unclassified data. Also, as with factor analysis, there are problems of deciding the number of clusters present, problems with the choice of computing technique used to form a cluster and problems of the stability of the clusters found by the cluster technique used.

As the majority of clustering techniques begin with the calculation of a matrix of similarities or distances between variables, careful consideration is required both in defining what these mean for determining a cluster - whether, for example, they are alike/not alike, or more similar than others, or whether they should be defined by the proximity of their within-group as opposed to their between-group distances - and also with the choice of variables to be defined in these terms. This in itself, is a categorisation of the data. There is no common operational definition of what constitutes the vague term of cluster. Bonner, (1964), suggests the ultimate criterion for its meaning is the value judgement of the researcher, (Everitt, 1980). Thus, the outcome of clusters is only as meaningful as the researcher's initial choice of variables in terms of an input of either their similarities and distances.

Some researchers prefer to weight variables differentially in the determination of the

similarity coefficient which means they need to decide which variables are most important for the purposes of classification. Sokal & Sneath, (1963), question the validity of such a procedure. They argue that clustering techniques are intended primarily as exploratory analyses to generate hypotheses, but weighting is based on researchers' intuitive judgements of what is important and only emphasises the subjectivity of their hypothesised classifications. Conversely, it is argued that weighting is justifiable as it increases the "managerial meaningfulness" of the cluster, (Morrison,1967). Thus, defining a cluster, and the categorisation of variables according to this definition is problematic. Different categories can have points of similarity about them, which lead to "mixed" categories of groups which are less clearly defined, (Gray & Satterly, 1976-7). Similarly, widely different solutions have been obtained using individual raw data as opposed to using its principal component scores. This suggests the need for researchers to be very clear about their unit of analysis - clearly a point of issue for climate conceptualised as an individual or as an organisational attribute.

In addition to these problems, there is a wide range of available clustering techniques, such as hierarchical clustering - progressive partitioning into first broad, then by "chaining", into more refined smaller classes; optimisation techniques - which admit re-location of entries in order to correct poor initial partition; density search techniques - which try to incorporate variables into existing clusters rather then initiate new clusters; and clumping techniques which allow overlapping clusters. All can provide different solutions to the individual data according to their assumptions; all have their limitations. A further, separate clustering technique is the Q-technique of factor analysis as used by Halpin & Croft, (1963), in their O.C.D.Q. This "inverse" method of factor analysis, where individuals are interchanged with variables so that individuals are grouped on the basis of correlations which are between individuals rather than between variables, also has drawbacks. For example, individuals can load on more than one factor, which makes classification difficult! Similarly, the types to be found from this correlation matrix are still defined by a (p) set of variables as (p-1). As more types of individuals may exist than the variables defined by the matrix, other variables may have to be added for Q-factor analysis to be used.

A related problem of defining the similarity of variables forming a cluster, is the issue of the number of clusters to be defined in a set of data. Similarity between variables depends not only upon the attributes of the variables, but also upon their number. As with the determination of variables, there is no theoretical basis for determining the number of variables. Both rely upon empirical procedures, but even within these subjectivity is involved. For example, Gower, (1975), advocates the decision to categorise, according to "sharp steps" that form when plotting data to some researcher's specified criterion. No satisfactory solution appears to be available, perhaps because there is no universally agreed definition of a cluster, (Everitt, 1980).

Perhaps the most difficult problem for the researcher is assessing the stability and validity of the clusters by the chosen technique. Do the same types emerge with different groups? Do individuals in other groups differ on the pattern of factor loadings? Because different techniques give different solutions the validity of the clusters needs to be considered. Researchers do not appear to acknowledge these problems: they rely wholly upon their chosen software for their report. In addition, they appear to be uncertain whether they wish to classify or dissect their data. If they are only interested in dissection, the separation may force the data into certain hypotheses rather than generating hypotheses - the underlying intention of cluster analysis techniques.

Thus, both factor analysis and clustering techniques have their problems for objectively reducing individual perceptual data when assessing climate as an organisational attribute. In conjunction with the problems of perceptual measurement and researchers' operational definitions, the viability of the statistical techniques for imposing rigour and objectivity in climate studies by the scientific method paradigm, may be challenged. The procedures of this paradigm appear to be poor substitutes for adequate conceptual definition of the construct.

What appears to be required is a working model of climate that moves beyond the present individual-organisational dichotomy of this construct for its level of analysis.

Such a model would need to take into account both individual and organisational attributes, as well as the dynamic relationships between these. As such, it could create a "*supra*-individual" linkage by bridging the multiple individual realities, or perceptions and their meanings, with an organisational-wide force. Such a model would then go some way towards shedding light upon the confused issue of causality because it would attempt to grasp both the process of members creating a climate and the product of climate as an existing structure that maintains, controls, and re-creates this process. To represent the complex and relative nature of this kind of reality, means recourse to a new paradigm that can adequately provide a language of appropriate concepts for this supra-individual linkage. It is also necessary to develop an appropriate methodology, that is able to reflect the linkage in its analysis and recognise this linkage as its smallest unit of analysis. Furthermore, the interpretations and explanations must be appropriate to this level of analysis in order for the complexity of the construct to be recognised.

CHAPTER 4

ISSUES: WHICH WAY FORWARD? A NEW PARADIGM FOR PSYCHOLOGY - OR SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM?

(1) A NEW PARADIGM FOR PSYCHOLOGY?

More recently theorists have re-addressed the individual-society interface to develop alternative frameworks with an interactionist perspective. Although there are differences of emphasis, the main tenets of an alternative paradigm have been delineated and have gathered strength among radical psychologists, (cf. inter alia Moscovici, 1972; Sampson, 1981, 1985; Henriques et al., 1984; Gergen, 1985). The theoretical frameworks subscribing to this new paradigm conceptualise a reciprocal interaction of individual and society. They have potential for conceptualising organisational climate, but as yet are confined mainly to academic psychology.

This theorising has been parallelled for some time in organisational sociology, for whom the concept of culture is a similar phenomenon to that of climate. Organisational sociologists have used a similar alternative framework grounded in G.H.Mead's theory of symbolic interactionism. This has provided the basis for the assumptions of the "interpretative" paradigm as an alternative research model to functionalism. It is a hermeneutic approach, for at its core lies the centrality of meanings - that is, the way individuals make sense of their world.

Both the alternative approaches to psychology and "interpretative" sociology have arisen from dissatisfaction with the dominance of positivist conceptualisations of social science. Both share a perspective compiled of diverse philosophical, psychological and sociological traditions with roots particularly in Kantian beliefs that social reality exists in "spirit" or "idea" rather than in concrete facts, (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). However, they encompass more than a phenomenological perspective. The phenomenological perspective with its emphasis upon the self's unique configurations of social

experiences and its capacity to reflect upon these, is incorporated into a broader referent that also includes the influence of social factors upon human behaviour.

In their concern for psychology's neglect of social aspects of reality, psychologists for their part, have concentrated upon the shortcomings of traditional approaches in mainstream psychology. They have raised a number of issues in their charge of reductionism, among which has been psychology's failure to grapple with the wider social, political, and historical contexts upon human behaviour, (Sampson, 1981; 1985; Gergen, 1985; Argyris, 1975; 1982). They have argued, for example, that society is mutable so that empirical findings must be bounded by time and space. They have also been concerned for the political ramifications in the policy-making sphere by an assumed value-free research, (Sarason, 1981; 1982).

There has been a strong element of moralism in their critique, particularly in the work of Shotter, (1975), and Joynson, (1974), who have been critical of the scientific treatment of subject matter because, they say, it has denied human agency. They have argued that subjects are pro-active, self-aware and intentionally intervening within a socially constructed world: that is, people have the capacity to reflect upon the unique configurations of their experiences and integrate these with their personal histories so as to act out their intentions.

It has been argued by Llewelyn & Kelly, (1980), however, that although the concept of agency has strong moral appeal, the aim of incorporating it may be idealistic. In practice it could be severely limited, partly by current political modes of social control - which attempt to adapt the individual to an existing social order or structure, instead of changing the order or structure itself - and partly by restricted self-concepts.

Until recently, the interactionist model assumed the individual and the social context as relatively isolated and discrete entities, despite acknowledging the importance of both. Conceptually, they were considered as independent entities operating with mutual influence in a common field.

However, more recent reformulations of this psychological meta-theory, (Handy, 1987), have enabled the development of a conceptual apparatus to be developed that is suitable not only for understanding human beings as changing subjects with wills, intentions and aspirations that create a better social world, but also recognises the determining forces of the social reality of the wider social and historical context upon this agency.

There are two fundamental propositions to this meta-theory. The first is that individuality is socially constructed,and the second is that people are themselves the knowledgeable creators of the social structures that control them, (Shotter, 1974; Harré, 1979). Society is seen not only as an independent entity over and against individuals, but is embodied within them, permeating their relationships with each other. Society is both inside and outside individuals. Social experiences leave their mark on people: at any moment in time the self is the product of its configurations of these experiences. The configurations are manifested in personal characteristics, values and beliefs. People's capacity to reflect and act out their intentions enables them to construct their own social world on the basis of these experiences.

Therefore, this dialectical model recognises both social and personal structures as well as the dynamic relationships between them, by attempting to grapple with both the social structure and the individual's process of creating this structure, as different aspects of the same phenomenon. It sets human activity within its social context. Apart from addressing the question of values and the inadequacy of a value-free science research model for policy making spheres, it also throws some light on the question of causality - of who controls whom. Furthermore, it emphasises contradictions in structures by acknowledging different prior social experiences and different interpretations of these. Appropriate analysis might locate these differences as the source of change.

Social structure is viewed as a product of self at a moment in time, the analysis of which is itself but a cross-section of a continuing process of personal/social development. To this extent social structure is a methodological artefact. It is not possible to make

predictions with any degree of certainty because of the intended and unintended consequences of unique constructions from fragmented and contradictory understandings made during the process.

Some evidence for this meta-theory is provided by anthropological studies and developments in psycholinguistics. According to Handy, (1987), contemporary anthropological evidence suggests that the ways people view their reality is culture specific, for environmental changes cause significant alterations in social organisation, interpersonal relationships and self-concept, (Heelas & Lock, 1981; Gauvain et al.,1984).

Similarly, work in psycholinguistics suggests that much of our personal reality could be constructed by our language which is in turn, largely of social creation. Both Whorf, (1953), and Bernstein, (1971), argue that the linguistic categories used to structure our worlds are socially determined, and so affect our view of reality. Wittgenstein's, (1958), analysis of language games suggests meanings for concepts stem from their use in practice, and the work of Jacques Lacan, (see Coward 1979), also reflects an awareness of how symbolic order determines our experience of the world.

Analysis of the reciprocal interaction of individual and social context by this dialectical meta-theory may help to bridge the gap between the implicit, tacit knowledge recognised in everyday practice and formal organisational theory. The same dialectical process of relating theory to practice and practice to theory would be involved, to provide a helpful conceptual guide to the development of organisational theory.

(2) SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM?

Although further insights into the nature of individual-organisation relationships are afforded by the reformulation of the radical psychologists, the nature of their emphasis upon the social determinants of reality can be challenged, as can their contention that individuality is more circumscribed than individual-oriented interactionist theories imply.

The psychological meta-theory also takes little account of how people come to construct meanings as a structure that supports a social system. It emphasises the inter-relationships of the structures rather than the processes, of the social system. It assumes people are knowledgeable agents, who create and sustain structures of meaning by their purposive actions which in turn, constrain these actions. Giddens', (1979, 1984), structural analysis of social knowledge, which distinguishes between the surface network of a social system and its underlying structures of meanings, provides a model for conceptualising radical psychologists' views of the relationship of individual and society.

Giddens' model is derived from Freud's distinction between the id, ego, and super-ego in the structure of the psyche. Similarly, it emphasises the determining power of society and its constraints upon human intention. Giddens also assumes a differential distribution of knowledge, skills and resources in society and that people, therefore, possess fragmented and contradictory knowledge due to their limited understanding of situations. This theorising is compatible with those who assert that the degree of human agency is effectively limited by the power structures of a political and economic society, (Llewelyn & Kelly, 1980).

Giddens' emphasis upon contradiction and fragmentation of the individual by the power structures of a social context, together with his neglect of a counterbalancing notion of consensus - the degree of agreement that can operate in society - suggests the conflict model of Marxist ideology to explain the relationship of individual and society.

Conversely, symbolic interactionism as incorporated into the interpretative paradigm, provides a more humanistic, perhaps idealistic, account of this relationship by describing the process of how people come to a symbolic convergence of shared meanings about their society through their interaction with each other. The ideology of symbolic interactionism values consensus - as shared meanings or common understandings - rather than contradiction. The theorising maintains consensus is an essential ingredient for explaining a society in terms of people's shared knowledge and understanding of, for example, its politics, history and law.

The emphasis upon consensus, however, assumes a relatively benign world, with equal opportunities for individual potential to be developed. Thus, the role of contradiction is relatively diminished. The theory, though, does not define the degree of consensus required to count as convergence - nor does it account adequately for the empathy necessary for this to occur. People vary in their capacity for empathy, and their ability to take the role of others in interaction. The assumption of consensus could also be a faulty conception, or at least a limited appreciation, of social organisation and structure. Meltzer, (1975), argues the symbolic interactionist perspective is non-economic and ignores the nature of social power. It may be incompatible, therefore, with the complex realities of the everyday world and distort the reality of social life. Like the meta-theory, it appears to be ideologically biased: neither perspective is value-free.

Mead's, (1934), symbolic interactionism is individually oriented despite its awareness of the role of social influences. He assumes, for example, the existence of human capacities to enable the interpretation of interactions with others. For instance, there is the human capacity to understand the meaning of the symbols - especially those of language - that mediate interaction and allow a response to be made on the basis of meaning. Secondly, a human capacity for intersubjectivity must be assumed if the world can be commonly understood by all. Thirdly, there is the general thesis of the alter ego - the presupposition of the existence of other individual minds, and fourthly, the "reciprocity of perspectives", (Schutz, 1962; 1972), must be assumed - the capacity to understand others by taking the role of the other in interaction and acting upon the basis of the interpretation of the other's intentions. Each of these individual attributes

supports symbolic interaction's humanistic notions in accounting for social beings creating a human society.

Although there are varying formulations of the symbolic interactionism as developed by G.H.Mead, (1934), - as for example, Blumer, (1962; 1969), Kuhn, (1964), and Berger & Luckmann, (1967), - all share basic premises that identify the variants as symbolic interactionist. For instance, they all share a view of the stability of the social world as apparent rather than real - society exists in the minds of people in the social unit and this makes society "real" to its members. The social world "exists" through the sharing of expectations and behaviours by different individual minds. As claimed by Cooley, (1902), the sharing of minds provides "the glue that holds the larger organisation together".

All the formulations assume human beings act in their social context on the basis of the meanings the social context has for them. Meanings are derived from social interaction with other human beings. In the process of interaction human beings interpret and define each others' meanings and construct their symbolic social world of shared meanings. This process of construction is important to symbolic interactionism.

Symbolic interactionists also maintain that the contradiction emphasised by the psychological meta-theory occurs during the interactive process of role-making and role-taking with others. Contradiction, therefore, is viewed more in terms of a limitation of working consensus. Individuals in a negotiating process can assert their definition of the situation and defend their interests. Any interaction, therefore, may be subject to continually revised treaties. The process of negotiation is crucial for exploring meanings and arriving at common understandings. Differences, however, are assumed to be resolved or at least accepted, in the "definition of the situation". A social order is negotiated as a shared construct among individual minds.

As with the radical psychologists, the varying formulations of the symbolic interactionists also share the view that society is constructed by human beings who, through their interaction with others, play a role in creating the social environment

which in turn places social limits on their behaviour. Individual and society are inseparable. They are mutually interdependent - both influence each other. Social order is no more important than the individuals who create the influence they in turn feel in a social context. Interaction, therefore, is a dialectic process of mutual growth and development for both individual and society.

Symbolic interactionists, however, are perhaps more concerned than radical psychologists with the notion of self. They assume the self and society emerge and are realised as identities through social interaction with others. Human nature is also a group nature. Symbolic interactionists also emphasise the self's capacity to reflect consciously upon itself and integrate events with history to construct unique configurations of social reality, in order to act upon the basis of these meanings.

The differences between symbolic interactionists' formulations are more a question of the appropriate methodological techniques to be adopted for these ideas, although each accepts the necessity of "getting inside" the reality of the actor in an effort to understand this reality as the actor does. There are also differences of emphasis in the importance attached to the relatively active or passive role of human agency in the social construction of reality - the issue of whether human behaviour is relatively free or determined. In addition, there is divergence in whether conceptions of self and society emphasise the process of construction or the resulting structures.

Kuhn's, (1964), interpretation, for example, is representative of the Iowa school of symbolic interactionism, where the preference for positivist methodology determines his interpretation of symbolic interactionist ideas. By reason of this preference, Kuhn acknowledges a determining view of human action, since positivism assumes the social context as prior to the development of mental processes in individuals. Becoming human, therefore, presupposes the existence of the structures of a social world, and so human beings are relatively passive internalisers of societal norms. Clearly, there is overlap between the perspectives of psychological meta-theory and Kuhn's interpretation of symbolic interactionism, for both emphasise structures as opposed to processes, and appear to weight the importance of the social context. For Kuhn,

however, these structures provide a specific cultural location for the social origin of self. His notion of self is exclusively "Me": a self made wholly predictable by the reference groups of the social unit. He seeks this interpretation among such statements of G.H.Mead as: "We are individuals born into a certain nationality, located at a certain spot geographically, with such and such family relations, and such and such political relations. All of these represent a certain situation which constitutes the "Me", (Mead, 1934, p.182).

Conversely Blumer, as Mead's student in the Chicago school, emphasises the interplay between the spontaneous "I" and the socially derived "Me" in such statements, to account more for human beings as active agents creating innovation and change in society through the processes of their interaction. He emphasises the processes as opposed to the structures. The self is a flowing process of interaction between "I" and "Me". Every act, Blumer maintains, begins with "I" and generally ends as "Me". The Chicago school also recognises more, the development of the self as a series of stages that can be observed in childhood interaction which, as a continuous process of socialisation, increases the ability to share meanings with others as common understandings. In addition, Blumer takes a more subjective, introspective and insightful approach to the methodology. He recommends researchers to "feel one's way inside the experiences of the actor" by qualitative methods such as gathering life histories, documenting case studies, and participant observation. These methods, however, do not lend themselves to conceptualising meanings as systematic structures. They are also difficult to report accurately because of the length of time it takes to collect the data. It is also argued that capturing episodes, interactions, or encounters of human actions reflect the ahistorical nature of symbolic interactionism. The transient, perhaps trivial, nature of these also disregards the macro-structures of society. Thus, the approach may be inadequate for explaining social problems with their inherent social and historical conditions. Furthermore, they are descriptions, rather than explanations that serve as a basis of prediction. Conversely, the more "passive" models of symbolic interaction such as Kuhn, (1964), that reject attempts to make inferences about overt behaviour and prefer attitude questionnaires and written tests for identifying self attributes, cannot tap the underlying meanings by these methods.

In organisational studies the latter problems have already been addressed in discussing traditional methods of measuring climate. The problems of qualitative or interpretative methods are perhaps best illustrated by recourse to studies of culture in organisational sociology, where Berger & Luckmann's, (1967), interpretative paradigm has provided impetus to address the subjective, symbolic aspects of organisational life in conceptualising this term. Their "phenomenological theorising" has also been defined by some as symbolic interactionist, (Dreitzel, 1970). The interpretative paradigm supports a contemporary conceptual definition of culture that replaces the mechanistic (instrumental) and organismic (adaptive) analogies, by a model of culture as a social process. Culture is viewed, not as an organisational variable but as a metaphor for the organisational processes. The interpretative paradigm is adopted to account for the continuous creation and recreation of shared meanings that arise through members' interaction with each other. Culture and the individual interacting in it are assumed to be inseparable components of the organisational interaction: they are mutually interdependent - simultaneously cause and effect.

Thus, the interpretative paradigm adopted for organisational culture studies reflects the symbolic interactionist's emphasis upon the centrality of meanings in the interaction processes. The paradigm is essentially descriptive and diagnostic, concerned with understanding why and how shared meanings exist to create the organisational culture and enable it to function. This emphasis precludes explicit implications for administrative effectiveness.

Of relevance to the present research, however, is the question of whether such studies use the term organisational culture as a synonym for organisational climate. With this possibility in mind, the following chapter examines the concept of culture in organisational studies.

CHAPTER 5

ISSUES:
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE OR ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE?

The newer concept of culture is drawn from anthropology where there are different understandings of its underlying structure of meaning. These differences are elaborated in organisational culture studies as either relatively concrete structures of shared knowledge constituted by networks of rules, or as thematic patterns of the shared meanings of symbolic discourse, or, to a lesser extent, as practices manifesting the projections of unconscious processes. Smircich, (1983), argues that these differing conceptualisations of culture form the foundations for different modes of analysis and address different research questions.

For instance, culture research where organisations are conceptualised as "master contracts" representing the network of shared knowledge, (Harris & Cronen, 1979; Argyris & Schon, 1978), examines the structure or "self-image" of the organisation. Such studies chart the rules by which members achieve coordinated action and assess their degree of consensus and co-orientation (the extent to which members accurately comprehend each others' knowledge and beliefs). They question what structures of knowledge are operating and what rules guide action for the understanding, diagnosis and intervention of organisations. This approach is similar to the theorising of Giddens, (1979; 1984), and radical psychology.

Research that treats organisations as patterns or thematic systems of shared symbols and meanings, (Manning, 1979; Van Maanen, 1973, 1977), seeks to interpret and understand the basic processes by which experience becomes a meaningful shared reality for those in organisational settings. As these realities are always open to re-interpretation and re-negotiation, the very concept of organisation can be problematic. The research agenda here is concerned with documenting the process of creating and maintaining a sense of organisation in terms of these common thematic interpretations. This approach is clearly rooted in symbolic interactionism.

The aim of those seeking to understand the ways in which organisations manifest unconscious processes is to penetrate the surface level of appearance, to uncover the workings of these. Basic to this work is the belief in the existence of a deep underlying structure built into the ordering capacities of the mind, and it is in these structures that the unity of shared reality exists.

Meanings of culture, therefore, are conceptualised in diverse ways and fulfil clearly distinct functions. However, apart from a general assumption that the symbolic processes of an organisation contain the fundamental meanings that generate and re-generate its social reality, there appears to be a lack of appropriate research methods for operationalising the different phenomena being studied.

There has been a stream of research that has conceptualised culture as individuals' shared meanings of key values and beliefs - like Cooley, (1902), as a social or normative "glue" holding the organisation together, (Siehl & Martin 1981; Tichy, 1982). For this, the studies have analysed rituals, (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), myths (Boje, Fedor & Rowland, 1982), stories, (Mitroff & Kilmann, 1976), legends, (Wilkins & Martin, 1980), specialised language, (Andrews & Hirsch, 1983), and even the act of management itself, as powerful symbolic processes of cultures that influence the organisation.

Such analyses, however, are only recollections of social practice - the actual practices of organisations play little part in explaining the myths themselves. Critical aspects of the negotiated, interpersonal nature of the actual interaction process may have been missed by these retrospective accounts. It can be argued that meanings need to be directly related to the interaction of actual practice: action as praxis rather than action as meaning.

Neither are such analyses methodical. There is no definite structure of meaning posited to allow systematic insights to be made; each analysis begins anew and focuses on whatever happens to be salient, or of interest, in a particular organisational world. In

addition, there is little evidence of a successively inductive process of refining categories by these analyses. Therefore, there seems to be little acknowledgement of the possibility of a common core of meanings existing between organisational worlds. This is a real possibility, given the assumptions of intersubjectivity and symbolic convergence within society.

These criticisms suggest, that to be able to understand and compare cultures, - for example, by successive case studies of organisations - there needs to be some structure of the meanings which must also be related to the structure of actual practice. It is possible that different types of meaning exist in relation to each other and interlock to different degrees in different organisations. The nature of this relationship may determine the character of the organisation.

In an attempt to take account of these conceptual and methodological problems, the interpretative paradigm has also been introduced into a systems theory framework where culture is conceptualised as a corporate, organisational variable, (Pfeffer,1981; Meyer,1981). The symbolic devices of myths, ceremonies and rituals have been acknowledged as cultural artefacts, expressing the shared values and beliefs of members, with the assumption that these influence the overall systematic balance and effectiveness of the organisation. For example, the studies share a view of culture that conveys a sense of organisational identity, (Deal & Kennedy, 1982); creates a commitment to something larger than self, (Siehl & Martin, 1981); enhances the stability of the social system, (Louis, 1980); and provides a sense-making device that guides and shapes organisational behaviour, (Pfeffer, 1981; Siehl & Martin, 1981).

Such studies, however, can be challenged regarding the extent to which they implicitly assume the deterministic nature of culture upon members, despite their adoption of the interpretative paradigm. Like the organisational studies adopting the scientific method paradigm, these studies also tend to argue that "strong" cultures are more successful than "weak" cultures, (Deal & Kennedy 1982). While it is claimed such terms are not evaluative but describe the extent of mutual accord, there appears to be some concern for whether the functioning, outcomes in terms of performance, or response to change

is good or bad, effective or ineffective. For example, such studies reflect a belief that "strong" organisations are those with internal "corporate cultures" supportive of management strategies and are thus more likely to be successful. They emphasise the importance of organisational symbolic processes for strategic managers to influence and direct the course of their organisations, (Schwartz & Davis, 1981; Tichy, 1982).

The idea of managers shaping "corporate cultures" of consensus to suit their own strategies may be viewed however, with the same caution as the more traditional organisational climate studies adopting the structural-functionalist framework: they may be little more than a means of strengthening management control processes. Similarly, the relationship between organisational effectiveness and its culture has not been established. Neither are the assumptions of cultures as symbolic processes necessarily consistent with the assumptions of cultures as systems. Assumptions of a strong culture as a pervasive, unitary reality also denies the existence of culture as a set of multiple realities. This is possible if sub-cultures or counter-cultures challenge and compete in their dysfunctional aspects, to define a unitary concept of organisational culture.

For the purposes of this study, however, the problems are not only those of tapping the symbolic processes of an organisation to capture a conceptual definition of culture. There is also the issue of whether the same phenomena are involved when considering the terms "culture" and "organisational climate". Are the same phenomena being investigated in such studies? Strivens, (1985), for example, suggests the term "organisational climate" is a relic of an abandoned theoretical framework (i.e., structural-functionalism) and should be dropped in favour of the more recent, all-embracing concept of culture. This, however, may be a sweeping generalisation. By using interpretative methods, the underlying meanings associated with each of these terms may differ for those who experience organisational processes. For example, does the term "organisational climate" refer to a climate resulting from the way in which an institution is managed or organised - as a verb - or does it describe characteristics of the organisation itself? Its meaning may also vary among researchers and may have even contributed to the present confusion associated with the organisational climate construct.

Thus, before the construct is finally abandoned as a research heuristic, it could be worthwhile to explore by interpretative methodology, the similarities and differences of meanings given to these terms by organisational members when describing their experiences of organisational processes.

CHAPTER 6

TOWARDS A MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

I. CURRENT STATE OF CONSTRUCT DEVELOPMENT

The foregoing review highlights the present conceptual confusion associated with the nature of the construct of organisational climate and supports Guion's, (1973), contention that its conceptual definition is more "a function of methodological convenience than deliberate intention to move to a new construct". Reliance upon the "scientific method" paradigm certainly appears to have preceded and constrained serious efforts to develop the veridical nature of the term first coined by Halpin & Croft, (1964), for use in educational administration.

These researchers - perhaps mistakenly - also equated the term "organisational climate" with school "atmosphere", "personality" and "ethos", an interpretation accepted and emphasised by subsequent researchers. Consequently, as a synonym of "ethos", organisational climate also appears to have been equated with the concept of culture by those researchers in organisational sociology adopting the "interpretative" paradigm, and has been conceptualised as a social world - indistinguishable from the social world of the organisation itself. Thus, despite the paradigm used, it seems possible the construct's range of meanings used in everyday language has created some confusion for research purposes and may have detracted from its usefulness as a research heuristic.

The veridical nature of the construct is also an issue, however, because of other conceptual issues created by the emphasis upon the "scientific method" paradigm. For instance, the paradigm's assumption that organisational climate exists as an "out-there" reality to be observed, denies the possibility of a more abstract existence of climate as a construction of individual imagination.

Related to whether climate is real or imaginary, existing or created, there is also the

issue of whether there is only one climate, or many climates in an organisation. Studies have not demonstrated conclusively the paradigm's assumption of the construct as a unitary, global organisational attribute, differentially perceived by individuals: their findings indicate the presence of qualitatively different climates among different role groups of the organisation. Phenomenologists argue there are as many climates as there are individuals in an organisation - climate is a set of multiple realities.

This issue also has consequences for whether the construct can be quantified - whether there are basic climate characteristics common to all organisations thus allowing systematic comparison. The "scientific method" paradigm assumes climate is a quantifiable construct. The empirical evidence, however, suggests it may well be qualitative - unique to either a whole organisation, organisational role groups, or even to individual constructions of reality. Climate studies, for example, have revealed the difficulty of generalising measures of climate beyond the organisations where they have been developed: factor structures, for instance, have not been replicated convincingly. This uncertainty has limited the construct's usefulness as a research heuristic, such as its ability to predict school effectiveness. If its quantitative nature cannot be established there is little point in using the construct for prediction purposes. Besides, if the construct were qualitative it would have a different purpose as a research heuristic: qualitative constructs are more appropriate for diagnosis, and understanding rather than predicting, organisational behaviour. They could be instrumental, for example, in facilitating the management of change in schools. Climate as a qualitative construct, however, has not been the subject of serious empirical investigation.

The issue of whether climates are quantitative or qualitative can also influence their categorisation as linear dimensions or as nominal types. If qualitative, climates are more appropriately categorised as types, though rating on dimensions such as autonomy or supportiveness, in a given organisation need not be precluded. However, this raises the issues previously outlined, with each of these nomenclatures.

Similarly, the quantitative/qualitative issue also influences the methods used for the construct's investigation. If climate is a qualitative construct, then quantitative methods

such as the measurement of perceptual data by questionnaire and the use of statistical techniques of analysis are inappropriate for its investigation. The role of the researcher is also affected.

For example, the quantitative methods of the "scientific method" paradigm have resulted in "outside" researchers determining the criteria to describe the construct. If different role groups perceive different climates, criteria significant to one group of people may be irrelevant to others. In schools, for instance, senior management personnel, teachers and pupils as "insiders" have different knowledge of the organisation, and each may specify different characteristics in describing the construct. To complicate the issue, "outsiders" such as parents, governors and other school visitors - even researchers - may specify further criteria as they are differentially immersed in the school organisation. Researchers, for example, may not be as conscious of criteria significant to "insiders", because they have not experienced the organisational processes. Deal & Kennedy, (1983), similarly suggest a sharp distinction may exist between the imaginations of those who work in organisations and those who study them or try to change them as "outsiders". Differing definitions of climate criteria may also account for the empirical evidence indicating the construct's overlap with other organisational constructs such as job-satisfaction. Thus, issues remain to be resolved about what counts as climate phenomena, to whom these apply, and the role of the researcher, in establishing the true nature of this construct.

Similarly, questionnaire methods adopted for the perceptual measurement of climate are inadequate for capturing the meanings attributed by individuals who experience organisational processes. If climate is a construction of individual minds - as either shared or multiple realities - it becomes necessary to tap underlying symbolic processes. However, apart from operationally defining the construct in terms of individual beliefs, attitudes and values, climate questionnaires are unable to access the underlying symbolic levels of analysis. A response to a climate questionnaire item, for example, can reflect one of several possible meanings associated with school interaction. A "strongly agree" response to the item "my colleagues are helpful and considerate" could mean: they are friendly and sociable, offer pedagogical advice, or encourage participation in the

decision-making processes of the school. This implies the presence of quite different interaction systems in which there are different principles and meanings for maintaining help and consideration. Each of the meanings results in "helpful and considerate", but the climate may be qualitatively different in each interaction system. Traditional questionnaire measurement techniques, no matter how detailed in their range of items, do not specify these distinctions. Such data requires an interpretative perspective by direct observation or by recording accounts of organisational interaction, to reflect the complexity.

For the same reasons, the level of analysis adopted for measuring perceptual data may tap characteristics that are common to other similar organisational constructs such as job-satisfaction and leadership and, together with varying definitions, could account for the accusations of its overlap with these. Accessing the underlying symbolic processes may isolate climate as a distinct construct.

The paradigm's use of statistical techniques for analysing perceptions of climate is also problematic. For example, climate is assumed by the paradigm as an organisational attribute, whereas perceptions are individual attributes. Statistical techniques do not explain adequately how individual attributes become marshalled into a global organisational construct with organisation-wide force - and at what stage. They only provide measures of the consensus of individual perceptions - the meaning of the consensus is dependent upon existing organisational theory. They ignore the amount and nature of contradiction among respondents, which could be equally important in defining the construct. A qualitative analysis that records both agreement and disagreement may be required.

Finally, there is little account of the role of feelings in climate studies. Investigations adopting the "scientific method" paradigm emphasise the role of perceptions, values, attitudes and beliefs, with feelings as tacit concomitants. Even interpretative culture studies supporting such concepts as "interpretation for meaning" and "definition of the situation" emphasise rational accounts and do not appear to explicate feelings as important, affective counterparts of behaviour. Barnard, (1938), advised, that to

understand a social context, one must be able to feel its organisation. If organisational climate is assumed to affect people in profound ways, then it is likely that people's feelings are also involved in important ways, and are reflected in their behaviours. Barnard, (1938), believed such feelings to be latent - "the feelings in our marrow, not yet emerged into articulate form". While this may be difficult for climate researchers to operationalise, it seems necessary at least to enable the people concerned to articulate their feelings about the events that describe climate for them, register the nature of these and record their reactions as positive or negative. Again, an interpretative approach is necessary for investigating these aspects.

Thus, the issues associated with the construct - its different meanings to different people, whether it exists or is created in individual minds, whether it is a global concept as an organisational attribute, or a set of multiple realities as an individual attribute, whether it can be quantified for organisational comparison or is qualitative in nature, whether it conforms to linear dimensions or is categorised by nominal type, and whether symbolic processes and feelings in addition to the attitudes underlying behaviour should be tapped - arise from questions about the construct's qualitative nature raised by climate studies adopting the "scientific method" paradigm. It seems urgent, therefore, to investigate the construct more qualitatively by adopting the interpretative paradigm.

The interpretative paradigm, however, is not the panacea for problems of conceptualising the nature of organisational climate. Interpretative culture studies for example, also have methodological problems. For instance, their focus for criteria upon rituals, myths and legends only provides retrospective accounts which are not only subjective and unreliable, but are also not methodical. It may be necessary to observe, or record accounts, of actual practice to discover what counts as organisational climate criteria for different groups of people with different knowledge and experience of the organisation. For this, researchers need to participate in the organisational processes as "insiders". Immersion, however, creates its own problems of subjectivity for the conceptual definition, data collection, analysis and interpretation of the construct. Furthermore, the uniqueness of individual data does not lend itself to generalisation and

comparison. If the construct has quantitative as well as qualitative characteristics a more systematic analysis is required of the interpretative paradigm.

II. RE-INTERPRETING THE CONSTRUCT

If the construct is to retain its status as a critical link in an organisational model by representing members' beliefs, feelings and attitudes about their organisation, there is also a primary need to move beyond the present conceptual framework and re-conceptualise the construct.

For example, the relationship of the individual in the organisation needs to be re-conceptualised to establish a level of analysis that can account more adequately for who controls whom. The issues outlined above, suggest the inadequacy of conceptualising the construct with individual and organisation as separate entities interacting in a contextual field. More recent theorising suggests the construct may be more appropriately embedded in the intersubjectivity, or shared perspectives of the minds of people who work in the organisation.

As an intersubjective construct, organisational climate would be defined as a *supra*-individual linkage of the organisational realities constructed by members, but which can also determine their behaviour with organisation-wide force. The manner of this linkage and the extent to which it occurs in terms of the degree of consensus and contradiction among different members would be the critical defining characteristic of the construct. Thus, as a property of shared minds, an intersubjective climate would be an imagined construct. As it would not be real it could not be observed objectively. Its inherent subjectivity would be its strength.

Concepts such as "meanings", "rules" and "definition of the situation" are appropriate concepts for an intersubjective construct of climate, as they are not individual concepts - their meaning depends upon interaction with other individuals. Such concepts also tap the level of analysis of symbolic processes, or meanings, underlying interpersonal behaviour in an organisational context. Thus, an intersubjective construct of climate

would be embodied in the meanings attributed by people who experience the specific nature of an organisation's interaction processes. Accessing these would complement the behavioural level of analysis already tapped by traditional studies as behavioural acts or actions. This supports a conceptual definition of the construct more complex than traditional formulations, but one that would capture its spirit more faithfully. Climate as a *supra*-individual linkage of actions would be understood rather than predicted, and would require an interpretative perspective.

The intersubjective theorising of both the psychological meta-theory and symbolic interactionism provides support for climate as an intersubjective construct. Both approaches argue social psychology needs a truly intersubjective, rather than interactionist, approach for explaining the relationship of the individual in a social context. Both approaches reveal the limitations of treating the individual and organisation as separate entities competing for dominance about who controls whom. For both, the intersubjective arena is not a field in which the separate entities of individual and organisational variables interact, but an arena comprising the symbolic processes of members' interaction. Both recognise the medium or process, as well as the outcome or product of interaction, as a duality of control. Thus, both can acknowledge that climates are created, maintained and changed by members' interactions while simultaneously being determinants of their behaviour. With both perspectives, climates would have an enabling as well as constraining function.

The symbolic interactionist approach, however, is perhaps more concerned for analysing symbolic processes as a continuous pattern of meanings defining the situation, while the meta-theory appears to be more concerned with the structures of these meanings. The interpretative paradigm can capture either the continuous pattern of underlying meanings as themes, or enable an analysis that, perhaps more rigorously and methodically, categorises the patterns as rule structures or networks, with rules as the basic units of analysis.

The concept of "rule" however, requires clarification, as there are distinct kinds of rules with various meanings. Different understandings determine how they are accessed by

researchers. Kant, for example, distinguishes between regulative rules that guide or regulate behaviour and constitutive rules that are embedded in a practice and constitute or define that practice.

Regulative rules, such as notices on school notice boards prescribe correct, appropriate procedures for orderly behaviour. They are real, explicit and available to consciousness. They can be observed objectively, though differentially perceived, to account for organisational behaviour but they do not constitute or define the practice itself. They are not specific to the context of the practice: they are separate. Neither are they necessarily role-specific: they may apply to all members.

Alternatively, constitutive rules that define social practice - such as how to achieve promotion in the hierarchy - are implicit, rely on knowledge and are specific to time and place: different rules apply to different sets of actions. Also, rules may be breached as, for example, by stepping out of the role - an act that tacitly identifies the place and time-specific nature of a role with its inherent rules. Therefore, constitutive rules may be said to be intersubjective as they define the interaction of the practice itself. They may be accessed by participant observation or respondents' accounts of social actions.

Goffman, (1969), however, argues convincingly that all rules have an imaginary existence. He identifies two systems of individual organisation operating simultaneously to explain the rules of social behaviour. Each system has different understandings according to the sense people make of an action. One system is the set of rules that govern the performance of an action. These rules may be either explicitly formalised or they may be implicit, tacit conventions limiting more informally, the scope of behaviour. This conceptualisation appears to merge Kant's distinction of regulative and constitutive rules, as both existing in people's minds. Goffman, however, identifies a further system of dramaturgical maxims that describes the style or conduct of the person's performance in carrying out the rules defining the act. His accounts of asylums, for example, suggest that both the nature of the rules governing the action and how the rules are executed by a role occupant, are significant aspects of defining social behaviour. Dramaturgical performance rules and maxims, therefore, as constituent rules

are inherent features of roles and can explain observations of social practice.

Alternatively, Gurvitch, as noted in Bosserman, (1968), distinguishes between different kinds of performance rules which, as constitutive rules of social practice, interlock at different "depths" in structures of rules defining a particular social practice. For example, he distinguishes systems patterns as the observable regularities that are applied to constitutive rules - such as the communication network of an organisation chart. He also identifies "practical" and "background" rule structures constituting social practice.

Practical rule structures directly govern interaction in the organisation. They include such rules as how to address superiors, how decisions are formulated, or how to route requests. These are similar - though not quite - to Goffmann's formalised "official rhetoric" performance rules - the imaginary counterparts of Kant's regulatory rules. According to Gurvitch, (1968), however, practical structures are to be distinguished from background rule structures that give meaning to the practice and provide the background knowledge and grounds for interaction. Background structures are difficult to identify as they are taken-for-granted rules of practice: they are tacit and implicit, but can be brought into individual consciousness and articulated as manifest meanings. As such they can be distinguished from latent or deep meanings that remain unconscious and inaccessible. Background structures are similar to Goffmann's "tacit" sense of performance rules. Practical and background structures, therefore, correspond with Goffman's system of individual organisation of official and tacit performance rules.

Giddens, (1979), also distinguishes between constitutive rules at different "depths", but as system patterns and rule structures. He points out that system patterns are the observable results or outcomes, of "regularised relations" of underlying rule structures. Together, system patterns and rule structures constitute the rules defining the practice. Giddens refers to a process of "structuration" of the rules themselves to account for the production, maintenance and re-production of the social practice. The system pattern is the formalised outcome defining the underlying rule structures of social action that are generated and reinforced through interaction. In place of emphasising rules relating to the actor's style, the theory of structuration assumes a broader referent with differential

distributions of rules across actors with varying levels of knowledge, skills and resources because of their different experiences of interacting in specific contexts. For example, different teachers in schools can have differing knowledge - such as the best time to talk to the Head, different skills - such as how to persuade the Head, and different resources - such as a special friendship with the Head or, perhaps, the ability to express views articulately. Thus, the unequal power arising from such differences among teachers is an important factor in the production and reproduction of rule structures in school communication. Social competence is a skilled accomplishment.

Gurvitch, (1968), Giddens, (1979) and, to a lesser extent Goffmann, (1969), provide sociological perspectives of constitutive rules as intersubjective concepts. An intersubjective climate would be a global construct - a generalised rule created among or within role groups, reinforcing the dominant interpretations of rules in a particular interaction system and controlling the acts of newcomers to the group. None of these accounts, however, can explain how a person functions as an actor with self-awareness to determine these structures.

In contrast, Harré & Secord, (1972), provide a more psychological account in explaining how a person functions in social acts. They assume the second-order monitoring of individual consciousness in social action, to record the details of performance and style of presentation as specific meanings of the act. This personal construction of meaning, provides background knowledge for exercising second-order control in performing goal-seeking acts with a particular style. Rules represent the patterns of meaning to provide the instructions for the second-order monitoring of performance and style.

Harré & Secord's, (1972), ethogenic perspective of rule-following behaviour therefore, expresses a view of a person as a plan-making, self-monitoring agent, aware of goals and deliberately considering the best ways to achieve them as an actor. It assumes actors endow intersubjective entities such as interaction with meaning, and emphasises their intentions, their beliefs about what kinds of behaviour are necessary to achieve goals, as well as their awareness of the rules governing those behaviours. In this way,

social competence is acquired that can determine other role members' views of the climate construct. The perspective also emphasises the role of speech accompanying the action - to make the action intelligible and justifiable in occurring at a specific time and place in the sequence of interaction. Therefore, it is more appropriate to access meanings by gathering people's accounts of their actions by interviewing. The task of researchers is to derive an "account of accounts", for such an individual, personal analysis cannot be expected to lead directly to the discovery of general principles. With these assumptions, the construct of climate could be expressed as an *intra*-subjective, not inter-subjective rule system of meanings by existing as a set of multiple realities.

In a global sense, the meta-theory, (Llewelyn & Kelly, 1980), merges these different concepts of "rules" into one that represents or categorises the patterns of implicit meanings as rule-structures in accounting for the generation, maintenance and control of behaviour through interaction. Clearly the perspective, like symbolic interactionism, is open to interpretation.

The meta-theory, (Llewelyn & Kelly, 1980), appears to give more weight to the social determinants of interaction by questioning the theoretical value of the concept of agency. Although it recognises its moral appeal, it takes a more pragmatic view of the influence of social power in the political, economic and historical realities of a social world which, it argues are prior to individual consciousness. For example, although it acknowledges the second-order monitoring of individual consciousness to provide the rules representing the meanings given to interaction, it emphasises more the unequal power within social contexts, and the influence of social convention upon rule-following behaviour. Symbolic interactionists on the other hand, particularly those of the Chicago school, are more phenomenologically oriented in acknowledging the influence of "I" as a consciousness that is not only acceptingly aware as it monitors, but one that can also act positively to influence change in the social world.

Thus, neither the meta-theory nor symbolic interactionism claims to be value-free - unlike the claims of the "scientific method" paradigm. Whether researchers accept the political reality, and record contradiction and dissension as necessary adjuncts of

change, or seek to emulate a more utopian social world as suggested by the symbolic interactionist perspective in negotiating the consensus of shared minds - or interrelate aspects of both - seems a matter for their own assumptions and the value-laden purposes of social policy-making.

It seems possible, therefore, to re-interpret organisational climate as a construct embedded in the intersubjectivity of rules that categorise the pattern of meanings defining the nature of organisational interaction. The reinterpretation, however, needs to consider more fully the role of second-order monitoring of self-consciousness in determining the veridical nature of the construct. This role emphasises actors' intentions, beliefs and self-awareness, in order to negotiate change in a social world.

The role of consciousness can account for inequalities of knowledge, skills and resources among individual role members; it can also enable an analysis of the rules governing the patterns of organisational interaction (what to do - generally described as verbs) and the rules for the style of self-presentation (how to do it - and represented by adverbs), as construed by role members.

Role members' accounts would also reflect the degree of consensus and contradiction about organisational issues and determine the extent to which the rules are inter/intra-subjective within and among the organisational role groups, for determining the inter- or *intra*-subjective nature of the construct. Acknowledging the degree of contradiction also takes a pragmatic view of the realities of the social world to enable an account of climate that can be recognised by those who belong to it and have contributed to it.

Conceptualised as a set of constituent rules whose outcomes can be observed and formalised as a system pattern, the organisational climate construct has an assumed imaginary existence. It can be represented as a network or structure of constituent rules that define the organisational interaction for its participants. In order to capture the full relevance of the construct's symbolic aspects, the underlying rule structures categorising the meanings that define the interaction must include the tacit rules of performance, as well as the rules of self-presentation, for these depend upon the sense

in which constituent rules are understood by individual role members. Roles and rule structures are inseparable.

Practical structures and background knowledge structures would encompass similar breadth - perhaps more so, with their inclusion of differences such as knowledge and resources as well as skills. However, these categories may be less discrete than the implicit rules of tacit performance and style for, in practice, it is possible to imbue both practical rules and background rules with meaning. These categorisations are also less concerned with the role of individual consciousness and its significance in organising meanings into parallel rule forms of performance and style to inform individuals who are actors as well as agents.

However, conceptualising climate as a network of rule structures categorising the meanings given to organisational interaction, has a cognitive emphasis. The role of feelings accompanying actions involving self-consciousness, is undervalued. Reinterpretation of the construct, therefore, must also include an affective component for capturing the construct's symbolic aspects. The nature of role members' positive or negative affective reactions to specific actions in specific contexts needs to be articulated and recorded to supplement the implicit, cognitive rules of performance and style.

Thus, the reinterpretation of climate as an intersubjective construct argues for a more psychological perspective to take account of qualitative, individual differences of meanings and feelings and the role of these for participants who are also actors, if the construct's nature is to be verified.

III. DEVELOPING A CONSTRUCT ANALYSIS

In addition to addressing conceptual issues, an intersubjective construct of climate enables the methodological issues raised by earlier climate studies to be investigated. Within the prescribed parameters of its idealist assumptions as an imaginary construct, the added range afforded by its intersubjective concepts, its emphasis upon underlying symbolic processes for its level of analysis and its concern for the relevance of self-

consciousness to monitor actions, enables the issues challenging the veridical nature of the construct to be examined.

The analysis of an intersubjective organisational climate, however, must meet certain methodological criteria if it is to capture the construct's conceptual complexity and enable it to be a useful research heuristic. For example, the choice of sample, organisational context, methods of data collection and data analysis - as well as the role of the researcher - influence the level of explanation and must be consistent with an intersubjective interpretation of the construct.

First and foremost, the analysis must allow the qualitative nature of an intersubjective climate construct to be examined. Thus, it must acknowledge the qualitative nature of the meanings given to interaction processes by individual participants in a specific organisational context as experienced by a specific role group of organisational members. Furthermore, it must be able to tap the underlying symbolic processes of implicit meanings and feelings of role group members, by reflecting the rules describing the meanings of the interactions, the rules describing how the interactions are performed and the positive and negative affective reactions to these rules. It must also reflect the degree of agreement and disagreement of both meanings and feelings among role group members.

Thus, the first stage of an intersubjective climate analysis needs to identify a role group of organisational members (e.g., teachers) who work together in different roles (e.g., Senior Management, Heads of Department, assistant teachers and new teachers), in a specific organisational context (e.g., school) to investigate their individual understandings of the nature of the construct and their affective reactions towards the climate of the organisation in which they work. This entails a "grounded theory" approach, (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), to determine the conceptual boundaries of the construct to a role group of teachers of different status. Initially, other role groups inside the school such as pupils and "outsiders" such as visitors with different knowledge and experience of a school organisation are excluded as the data of differing role groups may mask or confound the degree of the construct's specificity.

Similarly, a qualitative investigation must not only focus upon a specific school context but upon the issues that generate interaction in that context. For example, it can be argued that situation-specific interaction processes relating to curriculum, pastoral and management issues provide a comprehensive context of school-specific interaction, relevant to a role group of teachers. As an intersubjective construct of climate is embedded in the symbolic processes underlying interaction and as the principles and meanings defining this interaction can vary according to the nature of the issues, a different climate is possible for each curriculum, pastoral or management interaction system.

The climate of one interaction system, however, may dominate among members to determine the character of the school as a global construct. Achievement-oriented or academic climates, for instance, may be generalised rules that reflect the consensus throughout role groups about the dominance of interaction relating to curriculum issues; general agreement for a caring climate may result from an explicit emphasis and concern for pastoral issues; while the overriding concentration upon rules in a bureaucratic climate may reflect the influence of issues concerning school management and administration. Alternatively, each interaction system could feature in generalising the significant rules that summarise the climate construct as, for example, a school defined as both academic and caring with orderly discipline and control; or maybe, caring but not academic, with minimum rules for control.

Conversely, climate may vary not only among the curriculum, pastoral and management interaction systems, but also for each role group of teachers - or even individual teachers - within each system who, with varying levels of knowledge, skills and resources, participate with unequal power to define the nature of the interaction in any system. This affects other role members as recipients, in significant ways to support the existence of climate as an *intra*-subjective, rather than intersubjective construct. Thus, a school could have many different organisational climates. To account for this possibility the interaction relating to curriculum, pastoral and management issues must be investigated separately.

A further concern for an intersubjective climate analysis is the ability of the methods of data collection to access the appropriate level of analysis that taps underlying symbolic processes as the tacit, implicit meanings of individual role participants. Implicit meanings and feelings may be called into consciousness when required, but it can be difficult for respondents to articulate these, even to themselves, when meanings and feelings are personal and often private.

The interpretative paradigm with its qualitative methodology is, therefore, a prerequisite for accessing the depth and detailed texture of individual data at this level of analysis and to record the degree of consensus and contradiction among role group members of different status. Not all interpretative methods and techniques, however, are appropriate for accessing the implicit meanings and individual strategies of interaction processes. For example, observational methods can observe the actions and infer the rules, but they cannot account for role members intentions or reasons for their behaviour. Their talk, as well as their actions is important. Thus, role members' accounts by open, free-response, or semi-structured interviewing techniques are also required, to access the individual meanings and feelings associated with the interaction of curriculum, pastoral and management issues. Questions must not only seek to establish the nature of the relevant issues, but also the reasons why they are contentious if the underlying meanings as tacit rules of performance and style are to be uncovered.

Reliance upon interviewing techniques, however, may not only provide retrospective and unreliable data, but may also be constrained by the emphasis upon talk and thus fail to take adequate account of the behavioural counterpart of actions. Participant observation, combining interviews with observing actual practice by the researcher as an "insider" may be more appropriate. It can be argued this technique facilitates data interpretation, for data may be checked with respondents as an integral part of the investigatory process. At the same time, however, it is difficult for the researcher to reflect more objectively upon the individual data - such as in categorising the meanings for an "account of accounts". interpretative participant-observation techniques also require time, which may be a problem in the long term.

Similarly, the data analysis also must take account of the qualitative nature of an intersubjective construct. Statistical techniques other than perhaps simple, descriptive techniques are inappropriate for analysing individual data of meanings and feelings as the rules of performance and style, to define the construct. However, defining the nature of the construct may be just as limited by an "account of accounts" description of qualitative data, as it has been by the quantitative techniques of earlier climate studies, because at this level of analysis it is not concerned with the construct's possible organisational-level properties. An analysis is required which as a heuristic device, elicits hierarchical relationships of symbolic-level data to reveal the extent of the emergent, more general organisational-level properties as a supra-individual linkage with organisation-wide force. The manner and extent to which this occurs would be the defining characteristics of the construct. Although this "textural" analysis of intersubjective data does not have immediate generalisability to other school contexts, it does enable the qualitative nature of the construct to be examined and indicates guidelines for universal meaning structures to define the construct. If the analysis is methodical and systematic, successive case studies can accumulate and identify further critical features by comparing the similarities and differences of the common rules, regularities and patterning of interaction processes.

Thus, the analysis of symbolic-level data need not only describe the qualitative characteristics that can distinguish climate as a discrete construct. Systematic analysis of qualitative data enables the issues of the construct's commonality to be investigated, to determine the extent to which it is an intersubjective or an *intra*-subjective construct of role members within, as well as across, organisations. Within organisations, the methodological concern lies with the ability of the analysis to demonstrate the degree to which climate is a global, intersubjective construct of shared minds, or remains an *intra*-subjective construct of multiple realities. Across organisations, the concern is its ability to demonstrate whether climates can be systematically compared by general categories in which meanings of organisational interaction are embodied.

IV. THE ROLE OF RESEARCHER

For the qualitative investigation of organisational climate as an intersubjective construct of rule-meanings, the role of the researcher is crucial for establishing the validity of the data collection, its analysis and its explanation. For example, when accessing symbolic and sometimes sensitive data not only listening skills but also, relevant knowledge of the context is crucial for establishing rapport, confidence and respect of role group members. It helps if the researcher is familiar with the general field of investigation - such as the educational field for studies of school organisations - to appreciate the meanings of context-specific data. The researcher too, needs to be an "insider" or participant observer who records role group members' accounts of situation-specific interaction issues and interprets these in the context of observations of that practice.

Similarly, techniques for collecting data can affect the validity of the researcher's interpretation. For example, concern for the availability of others' time as respondents and the demands of their working day in arranging interviews, the choice of context and the type and angle of seating arrangements, the choice of interview technique and the method of recording data can influence the validity of the data collected. Recording individual meanings of organisational practice in role group members own language for instance, not only supports Wittgenstein's, (1958), view that language meanings reflect actual practice, but also enables others to challenge the researcher's "account of accounts" and re-define if necessary, to communicate shared understandings.

The role of the researcher too, is crucial in the qualitative analysis of data. There is an epistemological gap between a model hypothesising universal semantics and the individual raw data provided by the "grounded theory" approach, (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). For example, Berger & Luckmann, (1967), distinguish between rules socially constructed as a negotiated order between people in specific situations and rules as the consensus of a cultural context preexisting individuals: both are related, but not as a 1:1 relationship - the former are more volatile while the latter change more slowly. Likewise Harre & Secord, (1972), maintain the generalised rules of a cultural context are constituted by a symbolic structure of sequential rule patterns and interrelationships which acts as a referent for actors to recognise and assign meanings so they can

negotiate purposefully and intentionally in social acts. Thus, the cultural symbolic system is a system of rules about rules. Harre & Secord also suggest such cultural semantic systems are in turn linked by rule conventions to deeper, more fundamental semantic universals of human life.

Without the assumptions of statistical models to guide the laws of parsimony, it is the researcher's responsibility in qualitative investigations, to bridge the gap with a data analysis explaining it. Assumptions about the nature of the reality underlying the explanation must also be explicit. For instance, Weber's interpretative methodology assumes social reality is a semantic universal, external to the individual. Thus, he argues his method of understanding, explaining the process by which universal meanings come to exist, must be followed by experimental methods as causal explanation to verify the qualitative explanation.

Conversely, Schutz's phenomenological methodology argues Weber's use of quantitative methods to complement qualitative explanations of social order is invalid, as social reality is not external to individuals: it is lodged as personal meanings controlled by individual consciousness within individual minds. Consciousness is a universal process and as such, provides an alternative basis for explaining social order. The semantic universals would be the shared meanings of individual consciousness arising from the direct "felt" experiences by individuals in a specific context. Thus, the gap between personal meanings and the generalised meanings of social order lies among the social relationships of individuals communicating in that context. It is necessary, therefore, for studies to focus on the essential existence of how meaning is acquired by each individual and how they come to understand each other.

While the existence of universal meanings is not denied, Schutz argues the essential role for the researcher is to focus upon the gap between members' data as direct "felt" experiences of a specific context and the researcher's interpretation as the indirect experience of that context - even "inside" researchers would have a different point of view from members. For this, the researcher has to make sense of members' ordering of direct experience, by re-ordering their accounts and verifying the interpretation with

them. The validity of the interpretation is its recognition by members as consistent with their own experiences.

For both Weber and Schutz, the researcher's first needs to record individual meanings in members own terms to reflect their personal ordering of experiences of a specific practice. The regularities are identified in a systematic re-ordering of this data, with concepts which may differ from those of the members. This representation of second-order concepts reflect the researcher's own theorising of how members' rule-meanings become generalised as social order.

For Weber, the explanation is represented by a hierarchy of categories which, as a model of the mind, arise from the logical, rational process of partitioning the similarities and differences to encompass all individual meanings as reasons of the mind. Each level of the hierarchy accounts for more commonality. The objectivity of this logical process of data reduction assumes the agreement of respondents, but still depends upon the specific context for its meaning; it is not at this level, an explanation of objective social reality. For Schutz, however, the researcher's interpretation can only be an indirect experience of members' direct "felt" experiences which are not only cognitive, but "owned" by self as personal meanings. Thus, validity is limited by the extent of the researcher's empathy for the meaning an experience has for other people in that context.

The researcher's assumptions of the nature of social reality also influence the final stage of data analysis. For Weber, logical explanation of qualitative data analysis must be complemented by quantitative methods, systematically comparing the similarities and differences of data from studies in different contexts, to explain the generalised meanings of an external, objective reality. For Schutz, explicating the basis by which structured order, pattern or predictability emerges can only apply in the first instance, to a specific context so the researcher's re-ordered data must be verified by comparing its similarities and differences with the individual members of that context.

Although Schutz's phenomenological methodology raises the same issues as phenomenological perspectives of organisations already discussed, it supports strongly

the conceptualisation of climate as an intersubjective construct of rule-meanings among members with different roles. It acknowledges the role of feelings in meanings that are significant to individuals: some meanings are not just rational, but also personal as they are "felt" experiences, "owned" by self and thus, affect the emotions. Phenomenological methodology, however, cannot explain when multiple realities become common characteristics. These may need to be considered for the mind, perhaps, is not autonomous: the process of consciousness may not be devoid of a political, social and economic context that creates inequalities among individuals; also, there exist social forces in a wider context of which the individual is unaware. It may be necessary, therefore, to assume more moderate interpretations that lie between the competing assumptions of Weber and Schutz.

For example, if an investigation challenges the veridical nature of an intersubjective construct of organisational climate, as either (i) personal, (ii) global as shared meanings but context-specific, or (iii) with universally shared meanings across different contexts, the methodology must take into account the possibility of both an external, semantic reality and a personal construct of meanings so the manner and extent of linkage as an intersubjective construct can be investigated. Clearly, the veridical nature of the construct with an intersubjective model will be constrained by idealist assumptions of a semantic, not observable, reality.

Weber's stages of analysis take into account both the wider social context and individual meanings. His logical analysis of categorisation too, is useful as an objective, rigorous and systematic account of all individual meanings as meanings in contrast, to represent the consensus and disagreement among organisational members. However, it is a weak version of idealist assumptions for it does not consider the role of consciousness and feelings in meanings. This omission does not preclude accompanying feelings to be incorporated alongside individual meanings of a hierarchical categorisation, but feelings may be under-represented by the logical structure as form is not prescribed in a phenomenological re-ordering; nor does it preclude verifying the interpretation with respondents for the further consideration of its nature as an *intra* - subjective construct of personal meanings.

Conversely, the manner and extent of the linkage in the hierarchy of categories could suggest the degree to which the climate in a specific context is a global construct of shared, personal meanings and feelings. It is possible for meanings to be shared, but feelings to differ if climate is a construct of multiple realities. Interpretation may, perhaps, be supported by quantifying the individual data of that context, or by comparing and contrasting the hierarchical structures of two contexts as successive case studies, to seek the extent of generalised meanings and feelings.

In the following chapters an intersubjective model of school organisational climate is proposed, based upon the curriculum, pastoral and management interaction from the perspective of a single role group of its members - teachers, to investigate the veridical nature of the construct as a semantic reality. Although the veridical nature of the construct is biased by idealist assumptions, these respond to issues faced by traditional climate studies with positivist methods assuming the construct as a global, external reality to be observed or differentially perceived. In accordance with the underlying assumptions of an intersubjective model of climate, a technique for a qualitative data analysis is developed, taking into account the competing views of Weber and Schutz, in order to explain the manner and extent of linkage of the construct's reality as either a personal, shared but context-specific, or as universal meanings of school organisational interaction.

CHAPTER 7

SCHOOL ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE
AN INTERSUBJECTIVE ROLE-RULE MODEL

The three-dimensional, intersubjective role-rule model of school organisational climate, (Figure 7.1), assumes the construct as the symbolic experiences of the processes of school interaction by individuals who occupy different roles and who have different knowledge, skills, resources and experiences of school practice. The concepts of role, rule and interaction adopted by the model emphasise its subjectivity.

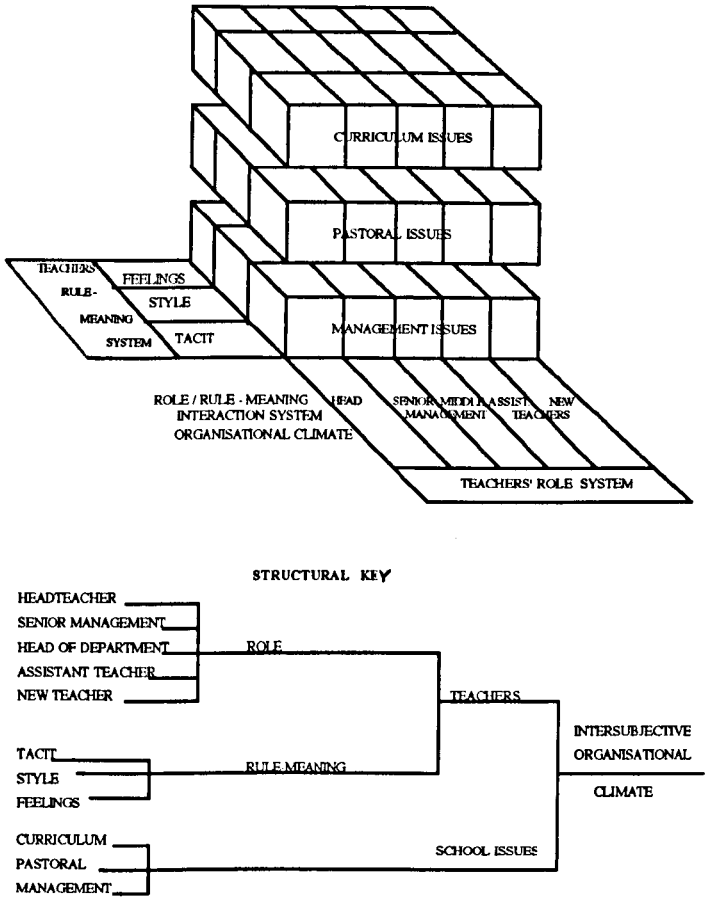


Figure 7.1 Intersubjective role-rule/meaning model of school of organisational climate

The model represents the construct from a teachers' perspective. It considers teachers as a relatively homogeneous role group of school members who experience school

interaction. However, it does not deny that other role groups of "insiders" such as pupils, administrative and ancillary staff, and "outsiders" such as governors, L.E.A. officials, parents - and researchers - can also have qualitatively different experiences of school interaction to influence their perspective of the construct. Teachers, however, are central to school practice as they interact with both other members and school visitors.

The model also takes account of the possibility that different groups of members within a role group, or even individual members can have qualitatively different experiences of the interaction processes and so formulate qualitatively different climates of their school organisation. At the same time, the model does not discount the possibility of climate as a global construct with differentially perceived commonalities, for it assumes the existence and influence of a wider social and historical context in order for meanings to be ascribed to the specific context of school interaction. Thus, the basic commonalities may apply to all schools as "cultural" universals, and perhaps to other organisational contexts also, as universal semantics of interaction processes. As such, this model of climate as experienced by teachers at a moment in time, can account for only a sliver of a composite, universal and enduring construct.

The three-dimensional model outlines a framework of (1) salient issues of school interaction relevant to (2) teachers as school members with different role status and who (3) imbue interaction about educational issues with implicit cognitive and affective meanings.

The model is based upon the curriculum, pastoral and management issues of school practice. Thus, the parameters - and perhaps the limitations of the construct - are immediately defined, for the model assumes the agreement and disagreement of school interaction is organised around systems of curriculum, pastoral and management issues - each system having its own principles and meanings. Although there may be other kinds of school interaction salient to teachers such as different social friendship groups or cliques, the model is concerned only with professional interaction and assumes the interaction of friendship is a concomitant of this. Alternatively, there may be further

interaction processes relevant to the construct, specific to other role group members. For example, while some management issues may not be the direct concern of pupils, the interaction of pupils in extra-curricular activities such as clubs or sports may not be relevant to teachers' views of the construct. Similarly, the rules underlying the more formal interaction between school members and school visitors, such as interviews with parents and professional and social agencies, or the style of conduct at public and formal school occasions can be more important to school visitors' views of the construct.

The separation of the curriculum, pastoral and management issues, (Figure 7.1), is an artefact of the model to account for teachers' different experiences according to the nature of the interaction engendered by each set of issues. However, it does not assume the systems are discrete, nor even equally important and sequentially ordered as the diagram may suggest. For example, school management issues must at times, involve both curriculum and pastoral issues. Similarly, it is possible for curriculum and pastoral issues to be interrelated in complex ways as for example, in a school with a child-centred philosophy, where the curriculum reflects the dominant concern for the needs of the child. Conversely, the interaction processes may be common to each system despite the nature of the issue. The model can only represent the existence of climate's interaction systems, not their relationship to each other.

However, the model can acknowledge the possibility of further situation-specific interaction by categorising teachers according to their status in the organisational hierarchy. The five role status categories of headteacher, senior management personnel - such as deputy heads or directors of studies, middle management personnel - such as heads of faculty or year and assistant teachers and new teachers - effectively represent teachers as single role occupants of situation-specific interaction in schools. Such categories can account for teachers' different knowledge, skills and unequal power in school interaction. They take little account, however, of teachers' age or years of service. The categories also make the model more appropriate for the increased size and complexity of secondary schools, but fail to acknowledge the unequal status of subject disciplines that can cut across status roles. Primary schools are smaller, cross-

curricular and thus, more cohesively organised; in these schools teachers may be more appropriately divided by the year group of their class or perhaps, by years of service.

The model also assumes the psychological existence of individual cognitive and affective organisation by which people assign meanings to interaction, categorising these as rules to enable them to act appropriately and with intention in school interaction. "Tacit" rules are assumed to govern teachers' recognition of the meanings of interaction, while "style" rules instruct their self-presentation as actors in interaction. As self-consciousness is involved, it is assumed emotions also have a role in the interpretation of the interaction. Feelings, it is assumed, are emotions in a context of meaning and influence teachers' school interaction as affective reactions.

Thus, the implicit meanings and feelings attributed by teachers of different role status to the interaction processes of curriculum, pastoral and management issues constitutes, with teachers as its example, an imagined, intersubjective construct of organisational climate. The model's three-dimensional representation of the curriculum, pastoral and management issues assumes a role-rule structure for each system - as a network of rules and feelings governing the interaction according to teachers' role status. Grouped together, the structures represent the rules and feelings about school organisational interaction as a whole - in effect, its organisational climate. The composite structure reflects the construction of climate as a process of all interaction systems, whose overall outcome or product, can be formalised by a model in two-dimensional terms, as a system pattern. The basic dimensions of the construct would outline the "regularities in the patterns of relations among concrete entities", (White et al.,1976). Thus, the model can account for organisational climate as both a medium and outcome of organisational interaction created by and in turn controlling, the organisational behaviour of a single group of its role members.

As a *supra*-individual linkage of the complex inter-relationships of roles, rules and feelings governing teachers' interaction of school issues, the model of organisational climate takes account of issues raised by the empirical evidence of earlier studies. For example, it considers the possible qualitative nature of the construct by its situation-

specific interaction for a specific role group of members in a specific organisational context; it incorporates role status to account for differences of perceived climate among roles at differing hierarchical levels; it includes issues in order to acknowledge contradiction as well as consensus among colleagues in school interaction; it demonstrates a structure to account for the symbolic processes underlying a system pattern of organisational behaviour; by this level of analysis it also counters the issues raised by earlier behavioural analyses of the construct's redundancy and overlap with other constructs. Finally, the *supra*-individual structure of interaction systems together, can account for the duality of the construct. It represents both the process and product of school interaction in terms of roles, rules and feelings to explain the extent to which teachers as school members at a moment in time, accept the existing climate or influence its change.

The model, however, does not portray the hierarchical relationships linking individual, subjective meanings to the organisational-level characteristics of the system patterns of the curriculum, pastoral and management issues nor their cojoint relationships as the climate construct. Neither does it consider the stability of the linkage that is necessary for universal characteristics of the construct. However, if the nature of the construct is a set of individual realities, few hierarchical relationships will exist. These realities will also fluctuate.

The nature and extent of the linkage is, therefore, a matter for investigation but first, a structural analysis of the qualitative data needs to be developed enabling the nature and extent of the linkage to be demonstrated. The methodology, or form of the analysis, must first enable the individual, qualitative data of teachers' implicit meanings given to school interaction to be categorised as rules and feelings in contrast - to reflect the consensus and contradiction. The contrasting categories of individual data must then be marshalled by a set of hierarchical relationships, into the more global, organisational-level properties of rules underlying each of the interaction systems, followed by the co-joint relations of these as the construct of climate. As an intersubjective construct, school organisational climate is thus constituted by increasingly general, but deeper, shared rules as emergent properties of individuals' contrasting meanings of the school's

curriculum, pastoral and management interaction - in this case, with teachers as an example of those who experience it. The following chapter considers an appropriate technique and rationale for such an hierarchical analysis.

CHAPTER 8

INTERSUBJECTIVE CLIMATE ANALYSIS

A technique appropriate as a base for a qualitative data analysis of the construct of organisational climate, is that of systemic network analysis, (Bliss, Monk & Ogborn, 1983). Its principles are drawn mostly from logic and linguistics, but also from the mathematical formalisms of graph theory and production systems. All assume the logic of the hierarchical structure as a fundamental way of ordering data whereby individual data is reduced into a hierarchy of categories, each level with increasing commonality for encompassing the individual data in terms of their similarities and differences.

Thus, systemic network analysis is an extension of the technique of data categorisation. A uniform system of notation has been developed for mapping the hierarchical structure as a graph to explain how the defined categories and sub-categories relate to each other. The notation not only formulates the links among the hierarchical levels of defined categories and sub-categories of varying number and complexity: it also portrays the nature of the interdependencies by identifying which categories are independent, which belong within others, and which are conditional on the choice of others. Thus, the structure is concerned with relational form - that is, with interpreting what someone meant by the data.

For example, the technique assumes the logic that any category partly defines itself by the contrast it makes along some meaningful dimension with another category. Each defines the other by its exclusion. To this extent a category is logically independent. The finer discriminations of sub-categories are by definition, constituents of a category but they are also defined by their different meanings. Thus, sub-categories may be mutually exclusive - as either/or choices of categories - or they may independent descriptors all of which need to be represented in a group constituting a category. Some independent descriptors may need to recur in different combinations within the category to account for category choice; others may only apply in special circumstances and thus restrict that category's choice. The notation symbols represent the different choices

available and how these relate to each other in the hierarchy of categories and sub-categories.

Thus, the technique classifies data as constituent categories of a hierarchy on the basis of meanings in contrast according to their logical, category meaning as "choice in context" at each stage. With finely discriminating qualitative data as its starting point, the notation enables the researcher in a step-by-step analysis, to determine categories of contrasting meanings, making distinctions along several independent dimensions to incorporate the individual complexity.

Systemic network analysis can be distinguished from the more general network analysis applied in social research, particularly in sociology and anthropology. Structural approaches to sociology for example, use network analysis in a different sense. They acknowledge "meanings in contrast", but at the level of analysis of behavioural relationships in a social context. They assume the social system exists as a concrete entity, separate from its participants and map out positions - such as status positions in a communication network - to infer how the relative positions account for behaviour in the system. They are more concerned too, with statistical techniques for analysing either the intensity or the density of positions in the linkage, or for identifying discrete levels of analysis in the system. Network analyses, therefore, pattern a social system that exists to be observed objectively and are not concerned with the processes of how the relationships emerge from individual data as constituents of the structure.

The concern of systemic network analysis is less concerned with the hierarchical structure as the outcome or with statistical techniques for explaining the data at different levels of the hierarchy. Its focus is the logical choice for categories based on meanings in contrast to explain the process by which individual meanings of a context become generalised meanings. For this, it has adopted the ideas and terminology of systemic linguistics which too, is concerned for language meanings used in situation-specific contexts of social interaction. It too, uses network analysis as a grammar of rules to account for the ways in which language is organised by meanings and a notation expressing meaning as choice in context.

However, systemic linguists assume language rules exist as a semantic reality. Systemic network analysis is a contrived grammar - a device to derive a structure of categories relating individuals' meanings. Thus, it is the researcher's responsibility to interpret the reality as emergent rules that reflect the choices among meanings of individuals in a specific context.

Thus, although systemic network analysis shares its principles with other approaches and formalisms, it can be identified as a distinct methodological technique for handling qualitative data. Its level of description lies between that of data represented as frequencies or category types and the textual nuances of ethnographic themes. As the technique reflects the principles and assumptions of Weber's interpretative method it can be a useful heuristic to explain the gap between the qualitative data of individual meanings and the generalised meanings of that context.

The technique is appropriate for analysing an intersubjective model of organisational climate as a *supra*-individual linkage of individual meanings concerning organisational interaction. It can code in separate, step-by-step analyses, the complex details of teachers' tacit rule-meanings - and maybe feelings - of curriculum, pastoral and management interaction issues as categories of meanings in contrast along different dimensions. Thus, the degree of consensus and contradiction among teachers in relation to these issues, can be represented. At each stage of categorisation, it can demonstrate the interdependencies among categories and sub-categories of contrasted meanings as teachers' choice in that context. It can also detect emergent social phenomena as part of a process that has no existence at the level of individual data and provide insights not possible with this data alone or with its aggregate measures. By combining each network analysis of curriculum, pastoral and management interaction as a composite structure, the construct of climate can be considered as a *supra*-individual linkage of roles, rules and feelings concerning school organisational interaction, operating with an organisation-wide force.

In a data reduction based upon logical choice, the technique may be less successful for incorporating the influence of feelings upon meanings. For example, the logical

structure of relationships among categories may misrepresent the weighting created by the "force" of certain meanings laden with different feelings.

There is also a conflict between the technique's assumptions of a constructed reality and the external semantic reality assumed by Weber's interpretative method. However, it is conceivable for the assumptions of the technique to be utilised to investigate the existence of an external semantic reality, by systematically comparing the similarities and differences of the network analyses of successive case studies. The notation, based on logic, is compatible with the language of some computer programmes to provide speed and objectivity in comparing the similarities and differences among data in such studies.

However, researchers who assume Schutz's phenomenological position would verify their interpretation of respondents' experience with the respondents themselves as the final stage of analysis, to take more account of the role of self-consciousness and feelings in the construction of social reality of a specific context. This process also, would need to be incorporated into a study challenging an intersubjective climate as an *intra*-subjective construct of multiple realities.

CHAPTER 9

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The organisational climate construct has been introduced into organisational theory to account for those general qualities of an organisation - as distinct from its objective, situational characteristics - that have a psychological effect upon organisational members and which are assumed to influence their organisational behaviour. It has been assumed if the construct can be assessed, its effect upon individuals and consequently, variables such as organisational effectiveness can be controlled. However, the issues raised by traditional climate studies have resulted in conceptual ambiguity and confusion about the nature of the construct. It is claimed as too global to be of further use as a research heuristic, and there have been calls for its replacement by other, more appropriate constructs as it is now "a relic of an outdated paradigm", (Strivens, 1985). Thus, its future as a useful research heuristic is in question. In considering this, a fundamental question to be asked is: "If there is such a construct as organisational climate, what is its veridical nature?

The conceptual framework of the role-rule model as a socio-psychological, intersubjective construct of climate together with the technique of systemic network analysis has attempted to take account of the conceptual and methodological issues of traditional climate studies. It enables some empirical questions to be addressed towards establishing the construct's veridical nature. Clearly, if the construct is to retain its independent status in an organisational model its distinctiveness as a psychological construct needs to be justified.

The construct's veridical nature, however, is constrained by the assumptions of the conceptual framework of the model. This assumes the construct of organisational climate is created in the minds of individuals who experience the organisation's interaction processes. It is, therefore, an imagined construct: it does not exist to be observed directly. Earlier studies have not considered climate as an imaginary construct: the "scientific method" paradigm has assumed the construct's real existence as it has

also assumed its global nature. Within the idealist parameters, qualitative methods can investigate the issue of the construct's nature as either a global, shared concept or as a multiple reality of individual meanings.

The issue of the construct's reality, however, is further constrained by the intersubjective model's focus upon one role group. Teachers represent only one of many role groups who experience school interaction processes. Furthermore, teachers are organisational members. Thus, a climate study based upon teachers' experiences of school interaction, ignores the experiences of other role group members such as pupils, or outsiders such as school visitors. Therefore, the use of a within-school sample of teachers for investigating the issue of the construct as a global concept or a multiple reality cannot compare the views of members and outsiders, or even two different role groups of members, to establish the nature of this reality. The issue can, however, be examined by teachers of different status in the organisational hierarchy whose different experiences of school interaction processes can influence their reality of the construct. In this way, the different perspectives of senior management and teachers as a management/worker distinction, can be investigated.

Thus, within the parameters of the model and its methodology, the nature of the construct's reality - as a global, differentially perceived concept of shared meanings, or as a set of different climates of the school - can be investigated with teachers of different status including those of senior management personnel and teachers. Empirical questions to be asked are:

1. Do teachers and senior management personnel, or staff and headteacher, share the same perspective of a school's organisational climate, or do they experience different, within-school climates?
2. Do teachers of different status in a school's organisational hierarchy share the same perspective or experience different climates?
3. Do individual teachers have unique perspectives for a climate construct as a multiple reality?

The issue of the construct's commonality, however, is not only a within-school issue

but also of one between-schools and between schools and other organisations. If the construct has basic dimensions or properties common to schools or to all organisations, then school climates can be compared. It is possible, however, that as a global concept the construct is school-specific.

Thus, a further empirical question concerns the qualitative/quantitative nature of the construct: to what extent is the construct of organisational climate a qualitative construct? To what extent may school organisational climates be systematically compared - or is the climate structure unique to each school?

Another set of empirical questions concerns the appropriate level of conceptual analysis for reflecting the complex nature of the construct. For example, previous climate studies adopting the "scientific method" paradigm have purported to be dispassionate in their investigations. None of these climate studies considers the role of symbolic processes, and there is no hint of meanings as feelings. Such studies have focused upon objective methods of handling perceptual data, and have failed to consider individuals' underlying meanings as cognitions and feelings. These could be distinctive aspects of a psychological construct of organisational climate. By uncovering underlying symbolic processes - the cognitions and feelings of teachers' implicit meanings - climate may be identified as an independent, psychological construct.

Qualitative analysis of symbolic-level data as a *supra*--individual linkage of organisational interaction can also help to determine whether the construct has a global inter-subjective, or a multiple, *intra*-subjective structure as its reality. Such analysis can also indicate the dominance of a specific interaction system - and why. Similarly, as symbolic-level data also takes account of human agency, the structure can identify meanings attributed.

First, however, because of collecting and analysing symbolic-level data, the meaning of the term "organisational climate" itself, needs to be confirmed among role groups. Researchers using unstructured qualitative methods assume responsibility for

conceptualising such data from the point of view of respondents. As the term "organisational climate" has been coined in the situation-specific research context of educational administration, the construct's range of meanings and its usage in everyday speech may differ among teachers and so determine their categorisation of experiences.

Thus, empirical questions to be addressed with regard to the construct's symbolic level of analysis, are:

1. Do categories of teachers' implicit meanings, as tacit rules governing performance and style in organisational interaction constitute a basic structure of the construct of climate for teachers?
2. Do the constituent rules of the structure result in a system pattern comparable with the dimensions of traditional climate studies?
3. Does the degree of consensus/contradiction as "meanings in contrast" add meaningfully to the nature of the construct?
4. To what extent does the analysis indicate climate as an inter-subjective or an *intra*-subjective construct?
5. What is the role of feelings in determining the nature of the construct?
6. Can a dominant interaction network describe the construct?
7. Do teachers differ in their understanding of the term, organisational climate?

The following study is designed to address these questions concerning the construct's degree of commonality within and between schools and the depth of analysis required to tap the nature of its reality. The study examines in two secondary schools, teachers' experiences of the curriculum, pastoral, and management issues of their school's interaction processes.

SCHOOL A

SCHOOL B

CHAPTER 10

INTRODUCTION
THE DESIGN OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The study is conducted with all the full-time teaching staff of two secondary comprehensive schools, (school "A" and school "B"), with 500-700 pupils in the south of England. The teachers are of mixed age and gender and occupy roles of different status in their school's organisational hierarchy. The five status positions represented in each school are: headteacher; senior management personnel e.g. deputy heads and directors of studies; middle management, e.g. heads of department, faculty, or year; assistant teachers - with more than one year's teaching experience but who could also have posts of minor responsibility; and teachers new to the school - probationers as well as those with previous experience.

The schools selected for the study are assumed to have very different organisational climates on the basis of their differing public school images.

A grounded theory approach, (Glaser & Strauss. 1967), is adopted. This allows a dialogue between theory and practice to emerge during the study and identifies implicit meanings of terms and events as defined by teachers. Responses are recorded in the language they use to define terms and describe experiences of organisational practice. As the approach is based upon teachers' use of language, the study assumes teachers are members of a highly articulate, professional body well-able to analyse, define and communicate meanings of terms and events to others.

The procedure of the study is based upon the three levels of Schutz's phenomenological analysis:

1. Teachers' responses to interview questions are recorded in their own language. They are asked to define the near synonyms, "ethos" and "organisational climate" to obtain a

range of meanings teachers attribute to each term. In response to questions of "What...?", "Why...?" and "How...?", they are also asked to comment upon the issues of concern relating to the curriculum\, pastoral and management aspects of school interaction.

2.The interview responses are analysed by categorising teachers' implicit meanings to reflect both consensus and contrast for each interaction system separately. The categories are extended and represented as three separate network structures of underlying tacit rules of performance and style governing the interaction of curriculum, pastoral. and management issues. The three network structures are then combined as a network of organisational interaction to provide a conceptualisation of the construct of climate from a number of different standpoints. This level reflects the researcher's understanding and conceptualisation of teachers' implicit meanings.

3. In order to begin to explicate the underlying, more generalised rules of the researcher's rules explicating teachers' meanings the study explores the presence of commonalities in school organisational climates, by comparing and contrasting the organisational interaction networks of two schools. For this reason, therefore, the schools are not considered as full case studies reflecting the details of a total school world; neither is school "A" a simple pilot study of school "B". Rather, the schools are examined as successive case examples by capturing the salient features of their organisational interaction as network structures in first one school, then another. By adopting the same procedural basis for both schools their network structures may be systematically compared and contrasted to identify possible commonalities for a construct of organisational climate.

The procedure of the study is presented in five parts. The data of each school are presented at each stage of the procedure so organisational differences may be compared and contrasted.

The five parts of the procedure are:

I. The school contexts.

II. Data-gathering techniques.

(i) Preliminaries of the investigation.

(ii) Researcher immersion period

(iii) Interviewing techniques

(iv) Role of researcher

III. Qualitative analysis of interview data

(i) Content analysis and frequency data

(ii) Network analysis

IV. Interpretation of data.

V. Conclusions

THE PROCEDURE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

I. THE SCHOOL CONTEXTS

The following comparison of school "A" and school "B" contexts is based upon each school's public image as recognised by its headteachers and the general consensus of its staff. Some of these views are also formalised in official documents such as the school prospectus. Differences between the schools can be discerned not only among physical characteristics but also, in the meanings that stem from the relative emphases of school members and their choice of spoken and written language used to describe their school to "outsiders". The contexts are compared by four criteria: environmental factors, school philosophy, administration, and teachers.

1. ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

School "A" is a small co-educational community college on the South coast in West Sussex, providing adult education courses and a range of youth activities in the evenings, as well as a wide-ranging curriculum by day, for pupils of 11-16 years. It is a modern two-storey building on a site of 11 acres with its own playing fields and situated in a rural setting.

The school was opened in 1958 as a co-educational, modern secondary school for 249 pupils of 11-15 years. In 1977, it was re-organised as an 11-16 years comprehensive school. The current roll is just under 500. A number of the pupils come from home backgrounds where there are social and emotional problems. Pupils who seek full-time education after the age of 16 years, transfer either to the VI form of a local comprehensive school, or attend the College of Technology. With the advent of C.P.V.E., T.V.E.I. and one-day link courses, the College of Technology has become more established as the principal "follow- on" site and links with the comprehensive school have become more tenuous.

School "A's" facilities include 3 science laboratories, and specialist rooms for Music, Home Economics, Humanities, Commercial Subjects, Languages and Remedial Work, Literature and Mathematics. There is a Community Room, Hall/Gymnasium, hard

surface area for tennis and netball, and field for games and athletics. There is also timetabled use of the local Leisure Centre for the Upper School. In order to provide for numbers in excess of the original accommodation, there are 4 hutted classrooms and, in an annexe in the nearby village, there is accommodation for Creative Design, Technical Graphics, Photography, Wood and Metal work, Art and Pottery, and Needlecraft and Fabrics. Two of the hutted classrooms at the front of the school have their walls fully decorated with brightly-coloured murals painted by pupils.

Because of demands made upon school use, storage space is less than adequate, especially for resources and pupils' personal belongings of outdoor clothing and bags. Coats are often - to quote teachers: "hung on backs of chairs, or piled in heaps in the classroom, or even in the main entrance of the school". Most of the school buildings are acknowledged to be shabby, with scuffed paintwork and some graffiti. Litter is a problem, both in the school and in the playground. The quality of the physical environment is a matter of concern to both management and governors, who feel it is "detrimental to the development of the community school - but L.E.A. funds are limited".

School "B", in contrast, is an 11-19 years, girls' comprehensive school in Hertfordshire. The school was founded in 1960 - about the same time as school "A" - as a grammar school for 200 girls. In 1977, it was re-organised as a comprehensive school - as was school "A" - and now provides for 700 girls of 11-18 years. Thus it has increased in size more than school "A". It is also well supported by parents, many of whom have scientific, technical, and professional employment in the area.

In contrast to school "A" the school buildings are well- equipped and maintained. They are "set in 14 acres of pleasant gardens and playing fields, on a prime site close to the town centre." There are 17 classrooms, 3 Art rooms, 7 Science laboratories, 2 Music rooms and a library. Extensions built in 1972 and 1977 have provided a studio for Drama, a Language laboratory, a Lecture Theatre, Careers room, Sixth Form accommodation, and 4 Home Economics rooms. In 1985, a Computer room was developed, and a workshop for Technology has just been completed, with the aim of

extending the traditionally academic and practical education, by modern technical skills and knowledge.

2. SCHOOL PHILOSOPHY

In school "A", much emphasis is placed on the quality of good pupil-teacher relationships and the ability of teachers to relate well to children. A caring routine of genuine concern, understanding and sincerity is emphasised, to help pupils achieve independence and responsibility for making their own decisions, and to enable every child to maximise their potential. Whilst not denying the importance of achievement in examinations, the emphasis upon personal growth is paramount.

There is also a wide range of extra-curricular activities available to the pupils. These are regarded by the Head as an integral part of the school's educational and community provision. The range varies from year to year, but includes the Chorale, Chess, Drama, Electronics, Band, Gymnastics, Arts and Crafts, and Dance. Until recently chess was a timetabled subject, and the school achieved national recognition for its standards.

School "B" also emphasises its personal concern for pupils. It aims to ensure that all girls, irrespective of ability, reach their full academic potential, and grow up to be "competent, confident, rational and self-reliant adults, who can manage their own lives and play their part in society". Thus, it also emphasises academic achievement. The school formally emphasises its family atmosphere, its learning, its high standards of achievement, and its good discipline in a caring environment. Girls are encouraged to be of service to the wider community outside school, and frequently raise sums of money for charities. School "B" has an excellent record of examination results at both 'O' and 'A' level, with most girls continuing into Higher Education, entering careers in the commercial world, or training for careers in Industry and Retail.

School "B" teams also have a record of achievement in District and County tournaments, and each year expect to gain National representation through some aspect of participation. There is a wide variety of musical activities with two orchestras, two choirs, a wind group, a recorder and brass group and various string groups. School

concerts and performances are staged throughout the year and are well supported.

As far as rules are concerned, school "A" has no codified system of formal sanctions. Matters relating to welfare and discipline are dealt with on an individual basis, on the assumption that in a small school, every pupil is known personally by most staff. Referrals to the Head are discouraged. Should a serious behavioural problem arise, parents are advised and consulted by either the Head of Upper School, or the Head of Lower School. There is a small list of basic school rules and behavioural expectations. This is issued to new parents as a "contract" between family and school.

School "B" rules though few, are intended to create a responsible attitude that extends beyond the school grounds. Girls are seen as "school ambassadors" and there is concern that they behave helpfully and courteously in the local community. Infringement of rules can lead to sanctions of extra work, detention, or report.

School "A" has no school uniform beyond wearing clothes of one basic colour. Pupils however, are formally requested "to take pride in their appearance and to look smart at all times".

In contrast, all girls in school "B" except those in the VI form, wear the school uniform colours to "identify themselves as members of the school community". Many girls choose to wear the school blazer which is corded in the school colours. School uniform is considered to provide "a special form of training for later life." Girls are encouraged to take care of their appearance, and wear appropriate clothes for a school day. Decorative features of school uniform are discouraged.

3. ADMINISTRATION

In September 1986, in order to implement a profiling system to coincide with the introduction of G.C.S.E. and the C.G.L.I/B.Tech. 14-16 years Pre-Vocational Programme, School "A" fundamentally re-appraised its aims, its curriculum and its structure, concerning the roles of both teachers and students, and the quality of their

work together. Management of the existing curriculum and pastoral structures was effectively combined by incorporating profiling to emphasise the school's philosophy of pupils' personal development and needs. Because of this emphasis, the curriculum structure had been developing by its own impetus towards the implementation of G.C.S.E., so fewer problems were envisaged with its introduction than in some schools. Pastoral concerns were emphasised as informal and individual, and formal pastoral administration was confined to the Heads of Lower School (years 1-3) and Upper School (years 4-5) who coordinated the work of form tutors. The Lower School Head also had responsibility for maintaining links with the primary schools, while the Head of Upper School coordinated careers and maintained links with the comprehensive school and the College of Technology. However, recent industrial action was creating management problems as teachers began to re-define their professionalism in significant ways, and this provided a catalyst for the management of change where it was most crucial - the timetable. As a result, the school day became shorter.

A diminished midday break of 20 minutes means school now ends at 2.30 p.m., with more time for extra-curricular activities. In the condensed school day Years 1-3 at present, have a totally blocked timetable so that teaching groups can be varied according to pupils' needs. These pupils are taught in mixed ability classes for the first half term on entering school, then grouped into sets for most subjects according to ability and aptitude. Children with learning difficulties are not excluded from the normal curriculum, and there is a full remedial programme based on their needs. Years 4-5 instead, have an 80% blocked timetable - 4 double periods a day - to incorporate time and space for interactive profiling. These students follow a core programme leading to G.C.S.E. examinations of English, Mathematics, Humanities, a Modern Language, a Personal and Social Development subject, a Related Arts subject, and a Science subject. In addition, there is a choice of two optional subjects. A supplementary range of supportive studies, including Work Experience projects, and a specially structured Modular programme is available for students not fully committed to examination work. The CGLI/B.Tech Pre-Vocational programme is taught in conjunction with the College of Technology.

The curriculum structure has been re-divided into seven Faculty areas, each with a Head of Faculty who, with a team of teachers, exercises considerable organisational autonomy at middle management level. The Personal and Social Education Faculty (P.S.E.) has gained parity of esteem with other Faculties in terms of time and staffing through years 1-5, to reflect its central importance in contributing to pupils' personal and social needs. A coordinator of Profiling - appointed from within the school at middle management level, and the Head of P.S.E., liaise with senior management of Head, Upper and Lower School Heads, and a team of personal tutors, to implement the profiling scheme that has been devised.

The school day has become less formalised and school-directed. Years 4 and 5 no longer exist as separate structures. On entry to year 4 students negotiate a contract with the college. They have responsibility for their courses and must treat the school as theirs. Class contact time is contracted and inviolable. If this is broken there is a negotiated line of referral. If necessary, this includes case conferences with outside agencies until the problem is solved. All teachers are personal tutors, each having responsibility for 30 students and holding joint reviews with individual students once a term. Students also have one interview per year with the careers tutor. Thus the traditional curriculum and pastoral structures have ceased to exist separately for, subsumed under the new management structure of interactive profiling, the emphasis upon the child's personal growth through the curriculum, has become an implicit and integral part of every teacher's role.

In contrast, organisational structures in school "B" are discrete and, with the arrival of a new headteacher, are now also formalised as distinct structures. A team-based management structure has been initiated consisting of a two-tier senior management team, a staff "consultative" assembly for teachers' full involvement in decision-making, teachers' working parties for curriculum and pastoral development, and five-minute morning staff assemblies before school registration for quick communication of information.

The emphasis of the curriculum is upon achievement. It "translates the aims of the

school into subjects and examinations". One of the two Deputy Heads (Deputy Head 2), controls the timetable. All girls learn Art, Classical and Religious Studies, English, French, Geography, History, Home Economics, Mathematics, Music, Physical Education and Science. They are taught in mixed ability classes in the first year, those with learning difficulties being withdrawn from certain lessons for two/three hours each week for extra help. In the second and third years these subjects are continued with some still taught in mixed ability groups, some in two ability bands, or, as in French and Mathematics, in five divisions according to ability. Girls in French division 1 and 2 also begin German in the second year.

In the fourth and fifth years, all girls follow 4 "core" subjects of Personal and Social Studies/Facing Society, Physical Education, English, and Mathematics. In addition they select four or five optional subjects, one of which must be Science, from a wide range of academic, practical, technological,and business studies courses. This enables more sciences as separate subjects to be chosen. Courses lead to G.C.S.E. as well as minor examinations, such as the Hertfordshire Achievement Project (H.A.P). School policy dictates a maximum of 9 examination subjects at 'O' level. A one-year C.P.V.E. course leading to a vocational examination for the 16+ age range has been introduced recently in conjunction with the local technical college. Girls in 4th, 5th, and 6th forms can also attend typing classes at the college, leading to Pitmans or R.S.A. examinations.

The sixth form also offers a full range of Advanced level courses as the school belongs to a Sixth Form Consortium with two co-educational secondary schools. Teaching takes place on all sites, so sixth formers may have to travel to other bases for their subject choice. The Consortium enables an increased study choice, as well as the opportunity to extend social relationships. School "B" is concerned for its girls to achieve not only passes, but "good" A.level grades.

A formal pastoral structure has been initiated to replace the informal personal and caring concern of teachers. It is coordinated by the Deputy Head 1 who, with a team of Year Heads organises a programme of "active" tutorials in timetabled time for years 1-3, to

supplement the Personal and Social Studies already in existence as part of the curriculum, for fourth and fifth years. The active tutorials are taught by the form teachers.

4. TEACHERS

In school "A" the 23 full-time teaching staff are predominantly young with approximately equal numbers of men and women - the majority has less than five years experience. As they are also keen and enthusiastic, they are prepared to adopt different roles to achieve promotion. All but two of the eight middle management roles are filled by women. The present headteacher was appointed to the post when the school was opened. His senior management team includes 2 Deputy Heads - one of whom is also Head of Upper School, whilst the other is Director of Studies - and the Head of Lower School. The 8 middle management positions comprise the 7 Heads of Faculty and the Profiling coordinator.

In school "B" of the 37 full-teaching staff, only three are men. Most of the women teachers are married and have taught in the school for a number of years. All teachers are well qualified, with expertise in their subject discipline. They also emphasise care and concern for individual girls and teacher/pupil relationships are friendly and courteous. Teachers are also involved in extra-curricular activities - music and drama, games and athletics, and the Duke of Edinburgh Award Scheme, in which about 40 girls are involved each year.

The headteacher appointed to the school when it opened, and who established a school reputation for achievement, retired in 1984. After a period with the existing Deputy Head as acting Head, a new headteacher was appointed, and had been in the school for a term at the start of the present study. There are two Deputy Heads, Head of VI form Consortium, Head of Lower School, 15 Heads of Department, and 6 Heads of Year who have pastoral responsibilities. The large number of Heads of department indicates the academic curriculum is not yet organised by Faculties.

The study commenced in school "A" at the beginning of an academic year, and

continued for a period of two terms. The study of school "B" commenced in the same two terms of the following academic year. A further visit was made to school "B" in the third term of this academic year. No member of staff left school "B" during this academic year, while 6 of the 23 teachers in school "A", it was learned, were replaced during this time.

II. DATA-GATHERING TECHNIQUES

1. PRELIMINARIES OF THE INVESTIGATION

Headteachers in both schools were approached personally and asked if they were interested in being involved in a study of this nature. For different reasons the timing of these ventures in each school was opportune.

In school "A", staff morale was considered by the headteacher to be low: one third of the staff had been newly replaced in the previous term and, with an increased school pupil roll, there were problems of classroom discipline as well as concern for adequate communication among the teaching staff. The headteacher believed, shrewdly, that efforts to get people to talk to others would in its turn, generate further interaction and communication among his staff, as well as help teachers to reflect upon their practice.

At the time of the visit to school "B", the new headteacher had been in the school for six weeks. She had already planned some major changes of the management, curriculum and pastoral structures to take effect the following term - the start of a new academic year - and was concerned to evaluate the effect of these changes upon the prevailing climate and school image by the end of the academic year.

In both schools, arrangements were made by the headteacher to introduce the researcher to teachers at a staff meeting in the term preceding the start of the investigation, to explain the purpose and method of the study.

At this meeting, the researcher explained the purpose of the study to teachers. It was described as a study seeking to discover a school's ethos or organisational climate from a teachers' perspective. Identifying the meaning of a school's organisational climate in terms of the teachers who worked in the school and had direct experience of it could be helpful in diagnosing school concerns or maybe, factors influencing school effectiveness. The problems associated with climate studies to date were outlined:

1. Much of the research literature in this area was American-based. It was, therefore,

necessary to determine whether those findings applied in a British culture.

2. Climate studies had assumed schools as organisations, were no different from other organisations. The distinctive features of school life needed to be investigated as these could affect the nature of an organisational ethos or climate.

3. Previous climate studies investigating teachers' perceptions of school ethos or climate had used questionnaires. These assumed certain characteristics to be relevant to teachers, and varied according to the assumptions of different researchers. Other methods such as interviews could determine which characteristics were salient to teachers. Thus, data-gathering would involve interviews with individual teachers at their convenience, and arrangements for these would be made in advance.

Confidentiality of interview information was emphasised. Teachers were reassured that while it was hoped they would recognise in the data the pattern of processes occurring in their school, the data would be anonymous; neither would it be made available to others. Interview comments would only provide the basis for interpreting the data. As the meanings unfolded, teachers would be involved in a continuous process of discussion and comment. In this sense it would be their study, about their school and its processes. They would each receive a report as a basis for discussion at a staff meeting at a later date.

This orientation was designed to allow a rapport and credibility to be developed with the participants, as well as to inform and reduce potential apprehension. It seemed to be effective: in both schools teachers stayed after the meeting to ask questions and express an interest and willingness to be involved. In both schools also, there appeared to be open discussion of issues, with teachers able to express their own views.

2. RESEARCHER IMMERSION PERIOD

Visits to both schools were regular, numbering at least one, and sometimes two or three days each week, over each of the two terms. Frequently, these days would extend into the early evening as there were invitations to observe staff meetings, such as full staff assemblies, Heads of Department meetings, pastoral and governors' meetings, as well as interviews, in-set days and working parties. There was also informal interaction

with teachers at coffee and lunch breaks, and "ritual" activities such as celebrations and end-of-term festivities. School assemblies were also attended, as were school functions such as concerts, drama productions, carol services and parents' evenings. The reasons for such immersion were:

1. to better understand the specific school contexts in which teachers interacted, and so focus upon pertinent issues in forthcoming interviews,
2. to check the model's assumptions that curriculum, pastoral and management areas could yield issues significant to teachers,
3. to consider the significance of the dimensions of earlier studies, especially the dimension of "control", and
4. to achieve a rapport with teachers that promoted confidence and trust.

During this time, it became apparent there were different perspectives between headteachers' and teachers' interpretations of school events. Although teachers differed in their interpretations, these were minor compared with the different perspectives of staff and headteacher. For example, headteachers had aims for the school as a whole for which, and for different reasons, they could only initiate change in limited directions. Teachers had a more limited view of school development. They could also disagree with the direction of change, or even the need for change itself. Thus it was important to incorporate both perspectives in an equitable representation of the data. A "listening", non-committal role for the researcher at this stage, was crucial.

It also became apparent that because teachers held so many different views, it would be necessary to interview the whole sample of full-time teachers. Part-timers and supply teachers were not included as they appeared to receive much information from full-time members of staff.

The immersion period too, suggested the interaction areas proposed by the model could yield issues significant to teachers. These issues also demonstrated the significance of "control", but such influence appeared to be more wide-ranging than that concerning the headteacher alone, for the differing knowledge, skills and resources of different teachers were also influential at different times. In addition, the model's exclusion of

informal social interaction among teachers also appeared to be upheld: although this could be seen to exist - and was clearly important to some teachers - its extent varied among different groups and issues were non-existent.

Finally, throughout this period there was a two-way reactivity in both schools: at times the researcher required information, while at other times the researcher was consulted for advice as an informed, but relatively objective "outsider". Such requests related to the academic and pastoral curriculum, professional development and career opportunities, as well as strategies for managing school situations and personal counselling. Apart from the danger of increasing the subjectivity, this procedure raised questions concerning ethnographic techniques of participant observation: although the researcher may assume membership by involvement and participation, members still perceive the researcher as a relative "outsider". Thus, teacher and researcher have different perspectives with different interpretations despite the degree of understanding engendered by immersion in the context to establish rapport.

3. INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUES.

A framework of 14 interview questions was compiled to sample four areas considered by both the model and the observations of the immersion period as salient for tapping the construct of organisational climate (Appendix 1). These were: definition of terms, interaction relating to curriculum, pastoral and management issues, aspects of control, and the perception of self in the organisation. Each of these areas also included probing "how" and "why" questions in addition to "what" questions, in order to tap teachers' reasons and feelings.

Definitions of the terms "ethos" and "organisational climate" (questions 1 & 3) were included to establish their meanings to teachers and also, provide a reference framework and purpose for introducing the interview. Illustrations of the meanings of these terms (questions 2 & 4) set the terms in the specific school context, for it was assumed their use in practice defined the terms for members of that practice. It was important for teachers to define both terms because of differing operational definitions of organisational climate by "outside" researchers in existing climate studies, especially as

these definitions had generally been assumed to describe the term "ethos".

In accordance with the model, questions 5-7 tapped issues arising in the curriculum, pastoral and management interaction of secondary schools. Each included probing questions to tap the underlying reasons and feelings of teachers' perceptions. It was assumed the nature of any informal social communication would be reported if significant to issues pertaining to these areas of interaction. However, this emphasis upon issues, while tapping topical concerns and possible contention amongst members, ignored less contentious aspects that might also affect perceptions of climate.

Questions 8-13 assumed other members apart from management personnel could exert control upon the perceived climate, and attempted to identify aspects of organisational influence that could create climate differences between schools. Teachers' positive and negative responses to other members' strategies for establishing control were also tapped. Thus questions were asked: "Whom do you consider to be important people in the school?", "What resources do they have that others recognise?", "What works best and why?", "What doesn't work and why?", "Who could veto or block initiatives, and how?", "What gets the highest priority here, and why?", and "How do you see yourself in the organisation, and why?", to pinpoint their perception of their own degree of influence (question 14). The relationship of self to other teachers was included because of the observed significance of personal meanings associated with teachers' personal experiences of school organisation. This question could also tap the viability of current theoretical perspectives viewing organisational climate as a multiple of personal identities.

Appointments were made with teachers at their convenience and availability, so that interviews with them could be completed in a relaxed manner. Open-ended interviews using the framework of 14 questions as a guide, were conducted with each full-time teacher. Thus the interviews were semi-structured, lasting 1-1/2 hours. After the two introductory questions to provide a reference framework and establish a rapport, teachers' leads were followed, controlling only where necessary to maintain a focus on the 14 prepared questions (Appendix 1). Thus, the order in which the topics were

discussed varied according to the significance and relevance of the material to the teacher. Responses were paraphrased as questions by the researcher, to check the accuracy of the interpretation and to maintain interaction. Interviews took place either in a quiet corner of the staffroom, or in the teacher's own study base such as a "prep" room, during the teacher's study time or after school. The interviewer and respondent sat informally side by side in "easy" chairs, to generate a relaxed atmosphere, and also, so the respondent could read - and refute if necessary - any note-taking of the information. This was perceived to be useful when divulged information was of a more sensitive nature. Sometimes a teacher would use the notes to refer to a previous statement as confirmation of a current one. Occasionally there was a request that certain information was "off the record" or "not to be written down". The pen was laid down to comply with this request and so minimise interruption to the information flow. By this relatively non-directive approach, brief notes were made, recording - in the teachers' own language - definition of the terms "ethos" and "organisational climate", issues of concern in the areas the curriculum, pastoral, and management interaction, aspects of control and perception of self.

To introduce the interview, the meaning of the terms "organisational climate" and "ethos" were probed to define teachers' reference frameworks. As the term "organisational climate" was expected to be unfamiliar to teachers, they were first reminded the study was related to the term "organisational climate" - a term first used in educational research to describe the personality of a school organisation. Teachers were then asked how they would define the research term, and to describe how it would apply in the context of their own school. One or two younger teachers experienced difficulty, and this was noted. All however, identified meanings of the term. This conscious effort of conceptualisation set the stage for a considered and thought-provoking interview, that engaged interest and involvement. The descriptions were noticeably associated with personal, affective reactions.

Next, teachers were asked the same two questions of the term "ethos". The same ordering of terms was maintained for each teacher as the term, organisational climate, was relatively unknown to them. Thus, an ordering or "set" effect was possible. For

example, teachers could interpret the separate requests for meanings of the two terms, as an expectation to provide a different response.

Defining the terms led naturally and spontaneously into the general framework of interview questions relating to organisational issues and control. Responses to "what issues", elicited probes that took the form of "why is that?" and "how do you know?" as basic rule-finding queries, as well as "how do you feel about that?" to tap the affective responses.

To complete the interview, each teacher was asked to sketch a diagram of their interpretation of the organisational structure of status positions in their school as a summary to their statements. The sketching process - such as hesitations of the pen, and spatial distance in grouping members of different status, as well as the diagram pattern itself - was observed. Teachers' accompanying comments were queried by the researcher to encourage dialogue. This conversational technique not only reinforced earlier statements, but also generated further data which was noted by the researcher. For example, the diagrams varied in their structural patterns, drawing attention to the informal structures perceived by members. The diagrams also reinforced teachers' perceptions of their own school status and influence.

4. ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER

The interviews not only generated teachers' interest, but also self-awareness of their role and relationship with the school organisation. This was demonstrated by the many teachers who sought the opportunity as the study progressed, to explore some of their own thoughts, ideas and concerns, arising from statements made during the interview. These comments were noted separately and dated. For example:

"I've been thinking about what we said the other day, and wondered, if you have the time, if we could talk again...."

and

"Thanks for the interview - I was able to think through my role after it, at a time when it mattered...."

or

"I've been able to think about my role here, in a way I've never considered before..."
as well as:
"I thought afterwards there were some interesting questions that made me think...."
and
"Thanks for helping me to think more deeply in analysing my own position here...."

The researcher's role could also be described as therapeutic since invoking teachers' conscious reflection about organisational issues revealed personal tensions and stresses relating to the staffroom world:
"I'm glad we were able to talk.... no, I don't mind the time...it was very useful - all that tension was bottled up - I've not been able to talk about it before.."
or
"If you have the time today, please find the chance to talk to.."
and finally from the Head:
"having a therapeutic effect..taking the steam out of things.."

The data-gathering techniques also encouraged teachers' continued interest and involvement during the study:
"I thought you might be interested in what happened yesterday, as it fits in with what we were saying last week..."
or
"You must have a very good idea now about the way everyone feels - probably more than anyone else here..."
or
"When will you come to show us the results - it must be interesting - it's our data - after all, it's about us..."

Such comments, reflecting the researcher's effect upon a study taking place over time, demonstrate the importance of the role of reflexive knowledge in teachers' working relationships with other colleagues. Teachers' awareness aroused by the interview could have its own immediate effect upon their school's organisational climate or ethos - as a continuous process of change.

III. QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEW DATA

1. CONTENT ANALYSIS AND FREQUENCY DATA

In each school teachers' interview statements were subjected to a separate two-stage content analysis. First, interview statements were recorded on individual cards to obtain an exhaustive list of comments and classified according to the framework of 14 questions. The statements for each question were then analysed and categorised into sub-groups according to the similarity of their meaning.

For the definitions of organisational climate and ethos, a scoring sheet was developed to record the frequencies of individual statements in each sub-group together with provision where appropriate, for indicating the positive or negative affective responses associated with each statement.

2. NETWORK ANALYSIS

For each school, individual meanings of the terms organisational climate and ethos, with frequencies of positive and negative reactions, were categorised by their sub-groups and organised as networks to show the relationships among teachers' understandings of the terms in school "A" and in school "B".

For each school also, teachers' meanings and feelings towards curriculum, pastoral, and management issues were categorised and organised into curriculum, pastoral and management hierarchical network structures to elucidate the consensus and contradiction at different hierarchical levels in each of these areas.

The networks were developed over a period of time trying out different structures, until the organisation imposed upon the individual data was consistent across the network in accounting for all the data.

First attempts at developing a logical structure did not account for all individual meanings, and there was concern for forcing a contrived structure upon the idiosyncratic relationships of social phenomena. For example, categorised phenomena

did not exhibit clear, hierarchical distinctions. Frequently, a category distinguished at an intermediate hierarchical level would be found to relate to one already separated by an earlier division and lodged in a distant branch of the network.

Alternative hypotheses were developed by working through small batches of data, defining and re-defining the categories with each new input, noting reasons for changes and dating the revised versions. The reasons for the changes provided criteria for coding the nodes. The different conceptualisations were crucial for providing insights that increased understanding of the patterns of underlying meanings. They also increased an awareness of the researcher responsibility required for conceptualising qualitative data.

This process of structuring and re-structuring to accommodate the data resulted in the development of different network structures for the curriculum and pastoral issues of each school, according to differences in the management control of the organisational structure of the school. For instance, in school "A" the headteacher's philosophy for the school had defined middle management roles of profiling co-ordinator and personal and social education (P.S.E.) co-ordinator as central roles to integrate the school's curriculum and pastoral activities; in school "B", the headteacher's concern for explicit management control of academic achievement and personal/social development had defined distinct curriculum and pastoral areas of organisation with distinct teacher management roles in these areas such as Head of History or Head of Year. Thus, in school "A" the nature of the curriculum and pastoral concerns could not be separated, while in school "B", they remained distinct.

The process of structuring and re-structuring also resulted in the development of two management network structures. There was too much information to include headteacher and teacher perspectives of management in a single network. Two distinct structures emerged that applied to both schools. Data relating to issues of the headteachers' ideas for the academic and pastoral curriculum formed its own structure as management content; at the same time, teachers clearly reacted to how management strategies were imposed upon them - the processes of management - to achieve the

required curriculum and pastoral content. Thus, two management networks were developed - one for the issues associated with the management content which integrated management, curriculum, and pastoral issues of concern to teachers and one for issues associated with the processes of management. The qualitative data supplied for the curriculum and pastoral networks was insufficient to justify such a separation, though this was attempted.

IV. INTERPRETATION OF DATA

For each school, content analysis of teachers' definitions of the terms, organisational climate and ethos, and network analyses of their issues of concern are compared and contrasted to examine: (i) the extent to which individual meanings are qualitative for the construct of organisational climate as an individual attribute, or emerge as an organisational attribute with categories of shared meanings; (ii) whether schools can be systematically compared by common criteria for climate or whether such criteria are school specific.

1. DEFINITIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AND ETHOS

(i) Across-school differences between terms

At the category level, both the content analyses, (Tables 10.1 & 10.2, p.168), and network analyses (Fold-out tables 10.3 & 10.4, pp.174 & 175; Fold-out tables 10. 6 & 10.7, pp. 180 & 181), suggest teachers in both schools define the terms by different criteria.

They define organisational climate as:

(a) general management and administration - "teachers' reaction to the ways in which the school is generally organised" or "general way in which the place is run";

(b) degree of structure or "ways in which control is imposed - the "delegation of authority" or "lines of communication: who does what - and how";

(c) pace of change - "teachers' reactions to changes incurred" with "different people and new structures";

(d) "quality and quantity" of headteacher ideas and initiatives;

(e) "mini-politics" of decision-making processes which affect the "information available" and "kinds of discussion allowed";

(f) quality of interpersonal relationships among teachers and between senior management and teachers - the amount of "mutual support", "harmony", between "those who make decisions and those who have to follow them", (Tables 10.1; Fold-out tables 10.3 & 10.4).

Thus, teachers' definitions of organisational climate appear to be concerned not only with the specific aspects of teacher/teacher and headteacher/teacher relationships in school management processes but also, of how these are implemented by those in control and their effect upon teachers.

In contrast, the categories of the content and network analyses for ethos definitions suggest teachers define school ethos in terms of:
(a) physical environment - "its care or neglect";
(b) school image - "its traditions and reputation";
(c) relative concern for academic achievement;
(d) pupil "attitude to work", "social behaviour" and "personal standards";
(e) teacher-parent relationships in a socioeconomic context, (Tables 10.2; Fold-out tables 10.6 & 10.7).

Ethos definitions, therefore, appear to relate to the wider effects of teachers' interpersonal relationships with pupils, parents and the local community as well as, perhaps, teacher-teacher and pupil-pupil relationships. These relationships appear to be influenced by the underlying philosophy of each school's headteacher and the degree to which this is shared or challenged by teachers.

TABLE 10.1

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE
POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE FREQUENCIES OF TEACHERS' MEANINGS.

	SCHOOL A.	n=23	SCHOOL B.	n=37
	+ve.	-ve.	+ve.	-ve.
GENERAL ADMIN & MANAGEMENT	4	16	2	16
DEGREE OF STRUCTURE	2	8	3	13
CHANGE	2	8	4	5
HEADTEACHERS'				
(i) IDEAS AND INITIATIVES	2	2	3	0
(ii) DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES	0	9	1	14
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS				
(i) SENIOR MANAGEMENT/TEACHER	2	12	2	10
(ii) TEACHER STRATEGIES	9	0	0	0
(iii) TEACHER / TEACHER RELATIONS	9	6	0	0
	30	61	15	58

TABLE 10.2

ETHOS
POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE FREQUENCIES OF TEACHERS' MEANINGS.

	SCHOOL A.	n=23	SCHOOL B.	n=37
	+ve.	-ve.	+ve	-ve.
PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT	0	9	11	0
SCHOOL IMAGE	31	2	24	15
ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE	63	25	32	18
TEACHER/PUPIL RELATIONS	122	16	41	24
PUPIL ATTITUDE	31	10	23	0
DISCIPLINE	10	68	41	17
PERSONAL STANDARDS	11	10	32	0
PARENT/TEACHER RELATIONS	0	3	6	0
	268	143	210	74

Thus, across-school similarities of the categories formed by content analysis (Tables 10.1 & 10.2), and by network analysis (Fold-out tables 10.3 & 10.4; 10. 6 & 10.7), suggest teachers ascribe different meanings to the terms, ethos and organisational climate, to reflect different aspects of the school as an organisation. Ethos meanings appear to encompass the relationships of a broad range of school practice, whereas meanings of organisational climate refer more specifically to the teacher-teacher and headteacher/teacher relationships determined by school management processes. For these teachers, therefore, the terms do not appear to be synonymous as assumed by earlier climate studies.

This interpretation at category level is supported by frequency data of the individual meanings constituting the categories, (Tables 10.1 & 10.2). These also indicate teachers' +ve/-ve reactions to the meanings as applied to their own school practice. The total frequencies for organisational climate, (school "A": 58-ve/15+ve; school "B": 61-ve/30+ve, Table 10.1), suggest teachers in both schools react more negatively to this term. In contrast they appear more positive towards school ethos, (school "A": 268+ve/143-ve; school "B": 210+ve/74-ve, Table 10.2). Thus, the frequency data for both schools suggest the terms can be differentiated by teachers' different reactions. The terms also appear to be differentiated by the number of statements, for in both schools ethos frequencies outnumber organisational climate frequencies.

The network analyses provide some explanation for these across-school differences. Comparison of the network structures, (Tables 10.3 & 10.4, organisational climate; Tables 10.6 & 10.7, ethos), which link the categories to teachers' individual meanings, demonstrate across-school differences in the amount and complexity of individual data to influence the degree of elaboration of each network. More complex data, for example, require more complex category organisation. Individual meanings of organisational climate networks are relatively few and specific compared with the number of statements and breadth of areas included in meanings of ethos. Thus, their organisation into categories is more straightforward. Ethos networks are more elaborate. The further hierarchy of teacher-pupil relations also reflects a specific teacher

perspective of broad aspects of school life. The categories for organisational climate are not necessarily school specific and could, possibly, apply to the management processes of organisations other than schools. Thus, teachers' across-school differences between terms suggested by the categories and frequency data also appear to be emphasised by qualitative analysis.

(ii) Between-school differences of terms

Teachers' definitions do not only indicate across-school differences between terms: at the individual level it seems possible their different meanings for each term can also differentiate schools. The frequency data, for example, suggest school differences in both the number of teachers' statements and in the number of +ve/-ve valences for each of the terms.

For meanings of organisational climate, (Table 10.1), 23 school "A" teachers provide 73 statements with 4 times as many negative as positive statements, (58-ve/+15+ve), compared with 37 teachers in school "B" who, although providing 91 statements, have only twice as many negative as positive statements, (61-ve/30+ve). Although teacher numbers are unequal, the numbers of negative reactions in both schools appear to be approximately equal with more positive reactions in school "B". Thus, it seems the fewer teachers in school "A" are more strongly negative towards their school's organisational climate than school "B" teachers who appear more divided in their reactions.

In contrast, although school "A" teachers provide 411 ethos statements, (Table 10.2), there are only twice as many which are positive, (268+ve/143-ve), compared with more teachers in school "B" who provide only 284 statements yet have three times as many which are positive, (210+ve/74-ve). Thus, for school "A" teachers, ethos appears more significant but is more of an issue than for school "B" teachers who, with fewer statements appear strongly positive.

The frequencies, however, are not systematic: semi-structured interview data do not represent the teachers in a staff group who agree/disagree with such statements - only

those who consider these as significant. The frequencies, therefore, are idiosyncratic and to attempt to compare them with unequal numbers of 23 teachers in school "A" with 37 teachers in school "B" can only conflate misinterpretation. Nevertheless, reduction of qualitative data by frequencies does suggest the possibility of schools differentiated by teachers' meanings of the terms and may indicate the general direction of school differences.

The network analyses provide further support for this interpretation. At the super-ordinate category level of analysis, the school-specific nature of the network structures for ethos can be qualitatively differentiated by brief summary descriptions suggesting school ethos should be defined in terms of discrete types. School "A" ethos for example, is defined as "child-centred", (Table 10.6), and school "B" as "achievement-oriented" (Table 10.7), to reflect the emphasis of teachers' individual data in each school. In contrast, descriptions summarising organisational climate meanings do not differentiate schools and could, possibly, apply to the management processes of any organisation, (Tables 10.3 & 10.4). Thus, at category level, schools can be differentiated by summary descriptions for ethos but not by those for organisational climate.

However, at the individual level of analysis, the network analyses suggest qualitative school differences with both terms. Teachers' individual meanings indicate between and within-school differences despite their classification by first-order categories which are common to each school. Individual meanings of organisational climate, particularly, are more personal and are imbued with affective elements. Thus, they reflect more within-school differences.

(a) Between and within-school differences in meanings of organisational climate, [Fold-out tables 10.3 & 10.4, pp. 174 & 175]

The commonality of the six organisational climate categories may provide criteria for differentiating schools according to teachers' meanings of the term.

negatively described as "chaotic" and "crisis management" by teachers in both schools, (school "A",16-ve/4+ve; school "B",16-ve/2+ve, Table 10.1), the network analyses also demonstrate between and within-school differences in teachers' underlying meanings qualifying these descriptions,(Tables 10.3 & 10.4). In school "A" effective communication appears to be the problem while in school "B", teachers seem over-pressured by the pace and diversity. For instance, although management "appears effective" in school "A", "verbal transfer of information does not work for a lot of people" as "it is not always open"; some teachers however, prefer the "happy confusion" for "while some things could be better planned, other qualities would be lost", (Table 10.3). In school "B", "crisis management" creates "turmoil"; teachers are "over-pressured", "rushing about in all directions" and feel "threatened" for "everything has to be done by yesterday", (Table 10.4).

Similarly, teachers in both schools react negatively to the degree of structure imposed, (school "A" 8-ve/2+ve; school "B" 13-ve/3+ve, Table 10.1), but for opposing reasons. In school "A", most teachers feel "insecure" by the "lack of structure" and "need clear common directives" - though some feel the "lack of pressure gives "freedom and autonomy", (Table 10.3). In school "B", negative reactions arise from "overwhelming organisation"; only a few teachers perceive degree of structure as "clearer delegation of authority", (Table 10.4).

Teachers also react similarly to the pace of change, (school "A", 8-ve/2+ve; school "B", 5-ve/4+ve), but for different reasons and emotions. In school "A", the Head's "keeping ahead and abreast of change", is, to some teachers, "stimulating and exhilarating" while to others it is "inconsistent" with teachers "never know what is going to happen next". In contrast, school "B" teachers feel "rushed" and "harassed" for they "work three times faster to stand still" and "too much change too rapidly, causes stress"; some however, consider "radical changes were necessary" and "should have been done years ago".

There are also school differences in teachers' reactions to headteacher ideas and initiatives. In school "A" teachers are divided (2+ve/2-ve), with "great - his constant

initiatives. In school "A" teachers are divided (2+ve/2-ve), with "great - his constant enthusiasm motivates others" and "bang up to date - only hope to keep up with the tide" as opposed to the "Head gets a lot of support for his ideas, but a lot don't trust". In school "B", the response is positive, (3+ve/0-ve), for the Head has "marvellous ideas" and "works harder than anyone" to put them into practice.

Teachers in both schools react negatively to headteachers' styles of decision-making. In school "A", (9-ve/0+ve), there is a "lack of forum" - the "Head invites teachers to be involved, but doesn't really want them - some are not even invited"; in school "B" however, the forum of formal "consultative" decision-making meetings is perceived as only "surface democracy" for decisions have "already been made in advance" and are "rushed", "imposed", or "fed through", (14-ve/1+ve). Thus, negative frequencies are supported by different reasons to differentiate schools.

Schools also differ by teachers' meanings of the quality of interpersonal relationships. In school "B", perceived headteacher-teacher relationships are strongly negative (10-ve/2+ve); the Head's "direct" approach "assumes co-operation" and creates "tense", "agitated" relations. In school "A", however, teachers are divided, (20+ve/18-ve). Some teachers perceive the Head as "very accessible", with a "personal, informal and friendly" approach. Such teachers "go separately to the Head" for "if you want opportunities, you have to make them happen by taking the initiative". Other teachers, however, feel "bitter" and "disillusioned", "isolated", and "not recognised and valued"; such teachers seem not to have adopted strategies to demonstrate initiative and perceive headteacher-teacher relations as "clandestine". As a result, teacher-teacher relationships are divided (9+ve/6-ve), with "very friendly and informal, definitely happy staff" alongside "not a team collective: affable on the surface, but dissent underneath", and "factions in the staffroom with everyone wheeling and dealing for scale points", (Tables 10.3 & 10.4).

Thus, teachers appear to react personally and emotively to their experiences of how school management processes are implemented and which are defined as organisational climate.

TEACHERS' MEANINGS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE [SCHOOL 'A']

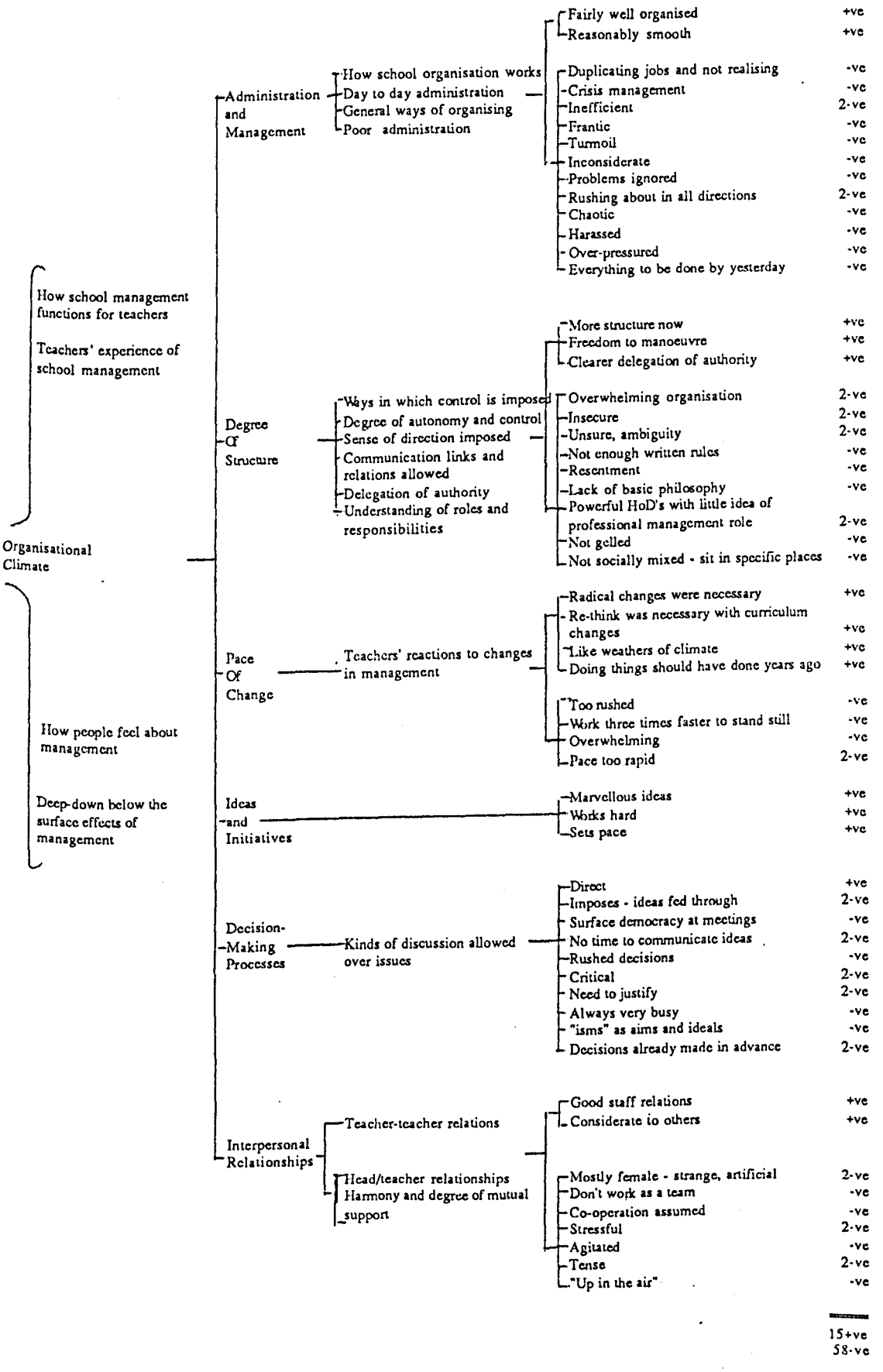
- Organisational Climate
  - Perceptions and reactions to management processes
  - Deep-down, below the surface effects of management
  - The mini-politics of management
  - How teachers react to the relations between senior management and teachers
    - General Administration and Management
      - How the organisation is implemented to achieve ethos required - getting the staff to do it.
        - Some things could be better planned, but others would be lost — +ve
        - Happy confusion — +ve
        - Bright breezy days — +ve
        - Sunny with intermittent showers — +ve
        - What you see is not what it seems - a matter of survival — -ve
        - General feeling of uneasiness and apprehension — -ve
        - Head says everything fine and wonderful - is it? — 2-ve
        - Chaotic - ineffective — 2-ve
        - Inconsistent — -ve
        - Crisis management — 2-ve
        - Management not done - no structure — 3-ve
        - Organisation appears effective, but information transfer is not always open — -ve
        - Confusion - uncertainty — -ve
        - Verbal transfer does not work for a lot of people — 2-ve
    - Degree of Structure
      - Structures set up to steer towards ethos
      - Whether organisation is organised or haphazard
      - Way in which management structures permeate
      - Lines of communication between senior management and teachers
      - Delegation of authority - who does what to achieve ethos - different levels perceive differently
        - Lack of pressure allows one to flourish, gives freedom and autonomy — 2+ve
        - Everyone does own thing - come together as much as the system allows — 2-ve
        - Don't really work together as a staff - no common link — 2-ve
        - Insecure - lack of structure - need clear common directive — 4-ve
    - Pace of Change
      - Changes incurred by new structures
        - Teachers have to be flexible, receptive to change — +ve
        - Changes are stimulating and exhilarating — +ve
        - Too much change, too rapidly, causes stress — 2-ve
        - Teachers not ready for the pace — 2-ve
        - Unstable - need stability — 4-ve
    - Ideas and Initiatives
      - Quality and quantity of initiatives
        - He's great - his constant enthusiasm motivates others — +ve
        - Bang up to date, only hope can keep up with the tide — +ve
        - Head gets much support for ideas but many don't trust — -ve
        - Ruthless operator - iron hand in velvet glove — -ve
    - Decision-making Processes
      - Amount of information available and how it is passed among members
      - Level of communication allowed between senior management and teachers
        - Lack of forum — 2-ve
        - Head makes all decisions — 2-ve
        - Head invites teachers to be involved but doesn't really want them; some not even invited — -ve
        - Staff manipulated and exploited to achieve Head's aims — -ve
        - Drag, drag, then snap decisions - it affects everyone — -ve
        - Never openly says "No" - agrees with everyone - can't trust — -ve
        - Too much power in middle management — -ve
    - Interpersonal Relations
      - Relations between those who make decisions and those who follow them
        - Very accessible — +ve
        - Very personal, informal and friendly — +ve
        - Clandestine - teachers told to keep information to themselves — -ve
        - Too much running to the Head — -ve
        - No contact with management - no voice — 2-ve
        - Staff as a whole are not happy — -ve
        - Need for pastoral care for staff — -ve
        - Pretty chilly - like the Arctic — -ve
        - Thankless - not valued — -ve
        - Don't fit - isolated, alienated - must get out — 2-ve
        - Bitter and disillusioned — -ve
        - Frustrated — -ve
      - Teacher strategies
        - Those in the know all go separately to the Head, especially for promotion — +ve
        - If you want opportunities you have to make them happen - take the initiative — 2+ve
        - Head encourages, enables and supports - but have to know what he wants — 3+ve
        - Employ strategies e.g., defend school's policies and aims — 2+ve
        - Definitely happy - knows do a good job with children — +ve
      - Teacher-teacher relations
        - Teacher-teacher relations very good - very friendly staff — 4+ve
        - Informal, definitely happy staff — 5+ve
        - Not cohesive - not a team collective — 2-ve
        - Not a family — -ve
        - Everyone wheeling and dealing for scale points — -ve
        - Affable on the surface, but dissent underneath - factions in staffroom — 2-ve

30+ve
61-ve

TABLE 10.3
TEACHERS' MEANINGS OF
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE
[SCHOOL A]

TABLE 10.4
TEACHERS' MEANINGS OF
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE
[SCHOOL B]

TEACHERS' MEANINGS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE [SCHOOL "B"]



15+ve
58-ve

The following table summarises school differences according to the meanings underlying their definitions of this term.

TABLE 10.5

SCHOOL COMPARISON BY MEANINGS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

	SCHOOL "A"	SCHOOL "B"
GENERAL ADMINISTRATION	Crisis management Lack of structure No information transfer	Crisis management Too much structure Turmoil
DEGREE OF STRUCTURE	Need common directives versus Lack of pressure gives freedom and autonomy	Overwhelming organisation Delegation of authority for freedom and autonomy
PACE OF CHANGE	Too much, too rapidly Inconsistent versus stimulating, interesting	Work 3 times faster to stand still versus radical changes necessary.
LEADERSHIP STYLE 1. Initiatives 2. Decision making	Constant enthusiasm motivates others versus iron hand in velvet glove No opportunities to participate - snap decisions	Head works harder than anyone Surface democracy - ideas imposed and rushed through.
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS 1. Headteacher - Teacher 2. Teacher - Teacher	Very personal, informal, versus clandestine; Have to take initiative and go separately to Head versus isolated, alienated - must get out; Informal, happy versus factions - affable on surface, dissent below	Direct, single-minded approach creates tense, agitated, stressful teachers. Friendly; powerful HoD's with status

(b) Between and within-school differences in meanings of school ethos, [Fold-out tables 10.6 & 10.7, pp.180 & 181]

Individual meanings for school ethos, (Tables 10.6 & 10.7), also demonstrate between and within-school differences underlying common first-order categories. Issues, however, are less personal and emotive; they seem more concerned with teachers' values.

For example, although frequencies for school image are both positive, the degree of agreement is stronger in school "A" (31+ve/2-ve), than in school "B", (24+ve/15-ve). Individual meanings elaborate these differences. School "A" teachers appear to value the "progressive", "child-centred" image, for although it is "sheer hard work", it is "education all the time - with children" who "come first in everything". In contrast, school "B" teachers emphasise the "full-range academic curriculum and achievement" with "excellent "O" and "A" level results". Some teachers, however, challenge the "elitism and middle-class values - like private education"; the school is perceived as a "cocoon" or "time-warp" which is " not in touch with the reality of a business world" and with traditions which "have not changed since the teachers were at school".

Similarly, while teachers in both schools emphasise aims of personal responsibility and independence, school "B" teachers, although appearing wholly positive, (32+ve/0-ve), are more divided about the nature of the teacher-pupil relationships required to achieve such aims, (41+ve/24-ve). For example, to some teachers personal achievement of high standards of academic achievement, social behaviour, concern for others and personal appearance are developed in a "consciously caring environment" where teachers "shelter and protect" by "bending over backwards for those individuals needing extra help" to encourage "a personal best". Thus, teachers "stimulate and encourage children to learn" by "focussing on the good points", "giving attention to accuracy and detail", "giving homework they can manage" and praising "high standards of work". Other school "B" teachers however, perceive this as "spoon-feeding - not challenging young minds" with "questioning or provocative material", too much "thinking written" and rewarding of "happy, passive, willing responses" and "no change of diet for the less able to reach their potential".

In contrast, the high positive frequencies of school "A" teachers (122+ve/16-ve), emphasise their concern for teacher-pupil relationships and contribute most to the positive nature of school ethos. The "child-centred and progressive philosophy" for the "all-round growth of the child" is considered to require a "very casual, easy going, relaxed, informal, and friendly" atmosphere, for children "need encouragement". Only a few teachers argue the "philosophy demands more maturity from children than they have actually got" for "developing self-motivation doesn't seem to work for some".

There are also school differences in concern for "academic excellence" (school "A" 63+ve/25-ve; school "B" 32+ve/18-ve). School "A" teachers emphasise a curriculum geared to children's vocational needs, with "tremendous variety - for all needs and abilities" and "not a lot of pressure to get good results" for "academic excellence is not a priority"; there are "more chances for the non-academic" by planning "lots of work geared to the less able". Some teachers however, believe "expectations and academic demands made of children's abilities are too low" and teachers are too "relaxed and casual from the children's point of view". In contrast, school "B" teachers value a "grammar school curriculum with traditional academic disciplines for its "above-average ability intake". Its "excellent academic achievement" however, is criticised by some as "not catering for the less able" or providing "adequate expertise for today's society" by "enough vocational emphasis for some to reach their potential".

Teachers too, in both schools perceive positive pupil attitudes with school "A" (31+ve/10-ve) and school "B" (23+ve/0-ve). School "A" teachers however, recognise the need for "work to be relevant and justified" with children who "need encouragement". In school "B" pupils are perceived as "happy and smiling"; they "enjoy being at school" and "want to work".

There are also between-school differences for physical environment, teacher/parent relations, and quality of school discipline. In school "A", for example, no teacher places positive value upon the physical environment with its "appalling conditions" - "a litter problem", "draughty rooms, cheap fittings, dull paint and rotten windows", (Table 10.6); though frequencies are small, all reactions are negative, (0+ve/9-ve).

In contrast, school "B" with its "well cared-for, attractive and welcoming" environment, is an asset, (11+ve/0-ve). In relation to teacher/parent relationships school "A" teachers appear wholly negative (0+ve/3-ve), while in school "B" all seem positive (6+ve/0-ve): for parents, school "A" is "still a second choice", whereas parents in school "B" "care about education" and are "influential, emphasising the sciences".

Schools "A" and "B" however, differ most by their standards of social behaviour or school discipline which, for school "A" teachers is negative (10+ve/68-ve), but positive for school "B" teachers, (41+ve/17-ve). In school "A", rules are minimal; there is "no structure on how to behave - or anything" for there are "no strict rules". Instead teachers "must relate strongly to children" and be able "to tolerate less formal relations"; children are "encouraged to challenge the rules" and "can tear teachers apart" in the process; they are "lively - not passively behaved" and "very, very, friendly - will talk easily", often with "too much to say". It "can be horrendous for probationers" who "fall into a relaxed and friendly trap - at a cost". School "A" teachers "cannot take children's respect as given - they have to earn it". Although it "gets easier with each year of experience", teachers must "have the ability to cope, fend for themselves, take knocks and work out their own salvation". Some teachers appear to support these policies, for they consider pupils are "not very aggressive - only tough on the outside"; they "will do anything for you, once they trust you"; many however, challenge the "laissez -faire discipline" with "is it caring or appeasing?" when children "come high to lessons with behaviour patterns difficult to contain" - or, "if they have had enough, don't even come - and get away with it", because "people at the top just send them back".

In contrast, school "B" teachers perceive a "consistent message from the top" and "clear lines of referral" to ensure children are "good-mannered, respectful, courteous, considerate and caring towards others"; there are "high standards of behaviour" with "few discipline problems" and "little need for written rules" - "it's like being on holiday". To some teachers however, such behaviour is "conforming" - a "blend of courtesy and repression".

CHILD CENTRED ETHOS	Progressive Personal Informal Relaxed Friendly Children's needs	Interpersonal Relations	Pupil/ pupil Relations	Physical Environment	Appalling conditions - structurally poor with draughty rooms, cheap fittings,dull paint, rotten windows	4-ve
					Problem with cleaners and litter - place gets dirty	5-ve
				School Image	Child-centred - aims for all-round growth of child; children to be treated as individuals - come first in everything	12+ve
					Very progressive; go-ahead - curriculum geared to children's needs	6+ve
					Most progressive school in area because of unique policies	4+ve
					Different from any other school - an unusual place	+ve
					School flourishing	+ve
					Good school image in local community - school was very run down	+ve
					School does not seem to work for 10-20% of children	-ve
					Philosophy is a positive weakness	-ve
				Academic Excellence	New initiatives - C.P.V.E., P.V.D., link with local F.E. college courses	+ve
					Always new initiatives - been ready for G.C.S.E. for years	3+ve
					Tremendous variety - for all needs and abilities	15+ve
					Not a work ethos - must work but not academic	4+ve
					Academic excellence is not a priority	3+ve
					Lots of work geared to the less able - look for something different to achieve	5+ve
					More chances for the non-academic	+ve
					No end of experiences and opportunities for children within the curriculum	3+ve
					Lots of extra things going on	11+ve
					Education all the time - push in all directions - always with the children	11+ve
					Rewarding to see children achieve	6+ve
					Not as academic as it should be	-ve
					Achievement is not recognised	6-ve
					Teachers have low expectations of pupil ability - no demands placed upon them	12-ve
					Not a lot of pressure to get good exam results - too relaxed and casual from the children's point of view	6-ve
			Teacher/ Pupil Relations	Teacher Role	School ethos based upon its teacher-pupil relationships	15+ve
					Must be able to tolerate less formal relations - relate strongly to children	11+ve
					Teachers need to like contact with children more than anything else - a priority	5+ve
					Children must see you as people - hinges on how much you get on here	5+ve
					Very personal - must have ability to form personal relationships with others	3+ve
					Very casual, relaxed, informal, friendly and easy-going	14+ve
					Role of teacher in wider sense - not just 9 to 4	2+ve
					Sheer hard work	12+ve
					Not to take children's respect as given - have to earn it	18+ve
					Must establish own boundaries - must be able to cope, fend for oneself, take knocks, look for support from within - work out own salvation	28+ve
					Must be ultra-caring - establish strong personal relations	9+ve
					Teacher morale low - feel pupil behaviour is going downhill	-ve
					Personal, informal and caring can be too much in the closeness of a small school	-ve
					Is it caring - or appeasing	-ve
					Most teachers here are very young and inexperienced - there are cries for help!	-ve
					Difficult for probationers - can be horrendous	7-ve
					Hard for teachers with genuine problems - teachers who are well-qualified but have not yet earned respect for themselves	2-ve
					Can fall into a relaxed and friendly trap - at a cost	-ve
				Pupil Attitude	Even the top sets are not very bright - difficulty with writing	3+ve
					Work has to be relevant and justified	3+ve
					Children need encouragement	4+ve
					Children tough on outside but soft inside - will do anything for you once they trust you	5+ve
					Kids not very aggressive -more sharp-witted	2+ve
					Gets easier with each year of experience - pupils get to know you	2+ve
					Children very, very friendly -talk easily	9+ve
					Children lively - not automatically passively behaved	3+ve
					Children have too much to say	-ve
					If they've had enough, don't come to lessons and get away with murder.	9-ve
				Standards of Social Behaviour (Discipline)	Necessary to be consistent with a strict routine, so children know where they are.	10+ve
					Children's behaviour patterns are difficult to contain - come high to lessons	5-ve
					Laissez-faire discipline - lack of discipline always coming up - big issue	15-ve
					No structure on how to behave - no strict rules - allow anything	11-ve
					Nothing to fall back on - no point in sending to senior management - they just send them back - lack of support	28-ve
					Too relaxed, soft and easy	6-ve
					Children encouraged to challenge rules - they can tear you apart	3-ve
				Personal Standards	Encouraged to develop self-discipline	4+ve
					Students negotiate and agree contact time for attending lessons	4+ve
					4th year children very mature - prepared to admit	+ve
					Children encouraged to become independent - that is how the Head wants it	2+ve
					Philosophy demands more from children than they have actually got	5-ve
					Developing self-control, self-motivation - is very difficult for some children	5-ve
			Parent/ Teacher Relations		Not chosen by parents -still a second choice	3-ve
			Teacher/ Teacher Relations		[Organisational Climate]	
						268+ve
						143-ve

TABLE 10.6
TEACHERS' MEANINGS OF
SCHOOL ETHOS
[SCHOOL A]

- ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATED ETHOS
  - Successful
  - Hardworking
  - Happy
  - Caring
  - Environment
  - Interpersonal Relation
    - Teacher Pupil Relations
      - Conscious Caring Concern
        - Teachers happy and valued — 2+ve
        - Teacher-initiated learning — +ve
        - Committed, dedicated, conscientious — 3+ve
        - Bend over backwards for those needing extra help — 4+ve
        - Stimulate and encourage children to learn — 4+ve
        - Genuine, very caring concern - especially for misplaced and unhappy — 10+ve
        - Supportive - give homework they can manage — +ve
        - Give individual help - unseen individual counselling - no big schemes — 5+ve
        - High standards of work praised — +ve
        - Reward accuracy and detail — +ve
        - Make expectations clear
        - Informal, easy, pleasant friendly relations — 8+ve
        - Spoon-fed - not challenging young mind — 2-ve
        - Sheltered, protective — 2-ve
        - Patronising - do not change the diet for less able to reach potential — 3-ve
        - Passive learning - notes given for learning — 2-ve
        - Parents and teachers think "written" — 2-ve
        - Knowledge, facts and "bands" information required — 2-ve
        - Not investigative or problem-solving — 2-ve
        - Not challenging, questioning or provocative — 2-ve
        - Too much individual teaching - no sharing of ideas - fragmented — 2-ve
      - Pupil Attitude
        - Pupils enjoy work - keen, want to work — 3+ve
        - Enjoy being at school — 2+ve
        - Happy, contented and smiling — 4+ve
        - Generally good positive attitude — 4+ve
        - Not ridiculed for working — +ve
        - Serious, committed to work — 8+ve
        - Lively and purposeful — +ve
      - Standards of Social Behaviour
        - Polite, courteous — 5+ve
        - Tension-free discipline — 2+ve
        - Good-mannered, genteel, not rude — 3+ve
        - Caring, helping others — 3+ve
        - Respectful, considerate to others, civilised — 6+ve
        - Self-disciplined - high standards of behaviour — 13+ve
        - Few written rules - no discipline problems - like being on holiday — 2+ve
        - Clear lines of referral — 3+ve
        - Low noise level — 3+ve
      - [Discipline]
        - Consistent message from the top — =ve
        - Blend of courtesy and repression — 2-ve
        - Conforming — -ve
        - No political awareness of social issues e.g., race, gender-only rhetoric with no connection to life — 2-ve
        - Need written rules to discipline the anti-social — 3-ve
        - Complacency,- as there is some undisciplined behaviour — 4-ve
        - Teachers won't discipline for fear of harming relationships — -ve
        - Backward in not having a pastoral system - too individual and some casualties — 4-ve
      - Personal Standards
        - Focus on the good points to do personal best — 7+ve
        - Personal contact - show interest as individuals — 6+ve
        - Develop self-confidence, responsibility and independence — 10+ve
        - 100% school uniform - well-dressed for the purpose — 9+ve
    - Pupil/ Pupil Relations
      - Physical Environment
        - Cared-for — 3+ve
        - Warm, attractive, pleasant — 7+ve
        - Welcoming and friendly — +ve
      - Tradition
        - Traditional — 8+ve
        - Good, academic reputation — 7+ve
        - All girls — 4+ve
        - Happy, caring school — 5+ve
        - Too much tradition - relies too much on its reputation — 2-ve
        - School has not moved with the times - back in the ark — -ve
        - Not changed since teachers were at school — -ve
        - Not in touch with the realities of a business world — -ve
        - Not educated for the real world - in a different century - a time-warp — 3-ve
        - Complacency - unaware of reality — 2-ve
        - Like a cocoon or convent — 3-ve
        - Too much elitism and middle-class values - like private education — 3-ve
      - Academic Excellence
        - Full range academic curriculum — 5+ve
        - Excellent academic achievement — 7+ve
        - Excellent "O" and "A" level results — 11+ve
        - A grammar school curriculum — 3+ve
        - Separate subject disciplines emphasised — +ve
        - Above-average ability intake — 3+ve
        - Opportunities in every direction — 2+ve
        - Too much emphasis on academic — 8-ve
        - Like old-fashioned grammar school — 3-ve
        - Less able not catered for — 2-ve
        - Not enough vocational emphasis - some do not reach their potential — 3-ve
        - Inadequate expertise for today's society — 2-ve
    - Parent/ Teacher Relations
      - Parents influential - care about education — 2+ve
      - Want emphasis on the sciences — 3+ve
      - Many have professional, scientific or technical backgrounds — +ve
      - 210+ve
      - 74-ve
    - Teacher/ Teacher Relations
      - [ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

TABLE 10.7
TEACHERS' MEANINGS OF
SCHOOL ETHOS
[SCHOOL B]

Differing definitions for the terms, organisational climate and ethos are an unanticipated finding and have implications for the organisational climate model which has assumed them as synonyms. To which issues of organisational interaction, if any, do the separate terms apply? The following school comparison of network analyses which represent teachers' issues of concern with organisational interaction requires further scrutiny to seek corroboration of this finding. The following table summarises school differences according to teachers' meanings underlying their definitions of school ethos.

TABLE 10.8

SCHOOL COMPARISON BY MEANINGS OF ETHOS.

	SCHOOL "A"	SCHOOL "B"
PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT	Litter problem, draughty rooms, cheap fittings.	Well cared for, attractive surroundings
SCHOOL IMAGE	Child-centred Progressive Relaxed, friendly and informal	Academic achievement Happy
ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE	Vocational Academic results not a priority Tremendous variety for all needs and abilities	Full academic curriculum Above-average ability Excellent "O" & "A" level results
TEACHER - CHILD RELATIONS	Children come first in everything Treat children as individuals Teachers must identify with children	Conscious, very caring concern Very committed - bend over backwards Shelter and protect Reward happy, passive, willing responses.
PUPIL ATTITUDE	Work has to be relevant and justified Children need encouragement	Happy and smiling children who enjoy school Keen - want to work.
SCHOOL DISCIPLINE	No structure on how to behave - minimal rules - will allow anything Children encouraged to challenge rules No confrontation - no lines of referral	High standards of behaviour Few discipline problems Good mannered, respectful, courteous, considerate. Consistent message from the top - clear lines of referral
PERSONAL STANDARDS	Personal development: Self-confidence, responsibility and independence.	High standards of personal achievement- academic, concern for others and personal appearance.
TEACHER - PARENT RELATIONS		School still a second choice Influential - keen for sciences

Thus, the qualitative, individual data demonstrated by the network analyses for organisational climate and ethos support frequency data to differentiate schools. The data suggest the term, organisational climate may be an individual attribute defined by six criteria while the term, ethos, is an organisational attribute with school-specific categories.

2. ISSUES OF CONCERN WITH ORGANISATIONAL INTERACTION

Network analyses of schools' issues of concern with organisational interaction can be considered at three levels of analysis: structural patterns, categories, and teachers' individual meanings.

(i) ACADEMIC AND PASTORAL CURRICULUM,

[Fold-out Table 10.9, school "A", p.189]

[Fold-out Tables 10.10 & 10.11, school "B", pp.190 & 191]

While both schools aim to provide a curriculum suited to pupils' intellectual, social and personal needs there are differences in the network structures, categories of issues, and teachers' contrasting meanings to suggest qualitative school differences.

Curriculum network structures differ according to the degree of integration of the academic and pastoral curriculum. In school "A", the academic and pastoral curricula are integrated as one structure to reflect the school's child-centred philosophy, (Table 10.9). The structure is uncomplicated with three general categories, each simply subdivided to reflect areas of concern. Teachers' strong emphasis on teacher-pupil relationships reflects concern for an academic curriculum emphasising "personal, all-round growth" for the autonomy and self-discipline of "happy, independent, thinking, responsible and caring adults". In contrast, school "B" has discrete academic and pastoral structures, both of which are more elaborate with more complex subdivisions indicating, perhaps, the information communicated by formalised structures. The academic curriculum structure emphasises concern for academic achievement, (Table 10.10), while the pastoral curriculum encourages all-round standards of excellence - social, personal and academic, (Table 10.11). Thus, school differences in the academic and pastoral curriculum network patterns appear to reflect different school aims or philosophy.

The academic and pastoral curriculum networks also appear to have common, general categories of curriculum structure, content, methods and assessment procedures to classify teacher issues which support or refute different headteacher aims for the school.

Thus, the categories may be criteria for discerning between and within-school differences of school aims in relation to the academic and pastoral curriculum.

School "A" for example, has a curriculum structure of seven faculties to integrate traditional subject disciplines. The faculty of Personal and Social Education (P.S.E), emphasises the child-centred philosophy, (Table 10.9). Teachers generally, support the faculty structure. The limited number of faculties also constrains competition for departmental status. In contrast, school "B" has a traditional academic curriculum structure of 15 subject departments - each with its Head of Department (HoD) - emphasising the importance attached to academic disciplines, (Table 10.10). HoDs resist change to a faculty structure to co-ordinate teacher skills and expertise for there is concern for "loss of "A" level prestige and identity"; other teachers argue faculty organisation would "lessen HoD autonomy, status and influence". Thus the category of curriculum structure can differentiate schools by teachers' issues of concern that reflect different school aims. There is general consensus among school "A" teachers towards this category but among school "B" teachers there appears to be more conflict.

Schools too, differ in the content of the academic curriculum to reflect different school aims. There are also within-school differences. In school "A", vocational initiatives have encouraged a "skills-based" curriculum which is "geared to pupil needs and abilities" and relevant to a world of work. Teachers perceive "no end of experience and opportunities" with "lots of work geared to the less able". Pupils must work but "academic excellence is not a priority" to meet aims of "personal growth". However, some teachers argue the school "is not as academic as it should be" as teachers "have low expectations of pupil ability"; there is "not a lot of pressure to get results" and "everything is too relaxed and casual from the pupils' point of view".

Conversely, school "B" emphasises "academic excellence". The new Head, however, rejects existing "elitist grammar school traditions" for these "do not allow all pupils to reach their individual potential". Because "high standards of achievement are possible for all", "untapped potential must be harnessed" by introducing vocational initiatives. Not all teachers agree. While some teachers support initiatives to broaden the

curriculum to make it "more relevant" and "enable more achievement for all", others seek extra curriculum time to develop externally examined options for more able pupils; they assume vocational initiatives are unnecessary as the school "does not have a special needs problem" and the consequent "lowering of standards" would not "meet university requirements". Thus, differences in school aims may also be compared by teachers' issues with the content of the academic curriculum. Schools too, may be compared by the degree of within-school teacher agreement with such aims: school "A" teachers appear to support the academic content's emphasis upon vocational initiatives with few within-school differences; in school "B", some teachers appear to be more agreed in opposing these initiatives to defend academic excellence.

Teachers' perceptions of preferred teaching methods also reflect different school aims. In school "A", the Head appoints teachers who can develop teacher-pupil relationships based upon trust" in order to establish an "informal, personal, relaxed, and friendly atmosphere". Children must see teachers as "uncommonly caring" people. Teachers must adopt a "problem-solving approach" with a "lively, enlightened teaching style" for they are not "disseminators of information for learning" and children are "not vessels to be filled with knowledge". Most teachers agree: although it is "sheer hard work" they establish "strong personal relationships"; they "tolerate less formal relations" and do "not take children's forthright talk as an insult"; they have to "earn children's respect. Some teachers however, are critical of the lack of concern for "teachers with genuine problems - young teachers who are well qualified, but haven't been able to establish enough respect for themselves" and who need "older, experienced teachers as models".

In contrast, some teachers in school "B" disagree with problem-solving approaches that "share ideas" and "integrate content" as a "team is only as good as the weakest member" and academic standards would fall. Teachers are "experts in their field". Others, however, are critical of methods that give "notes and 'banda' information" to "willing and hard-working pupils" to help them achieve success; such methods encourage pupils to "think written" and "do not change the diet", but provide "watered-down knowledge" for the less able. There appears to be more conflict towards teaching methods in school "B".

School differences are also identified by different assessment procedures. For example, in school "A" informal, personal support has been formalised by a structure of profiling assessment to integrate academic and pastoral concerns. The structure communicates pastoral responsibility "as part of every teacher's role" to reflect the child-centred philosophy. It also "provides guidance" for what was "hit and miss before". There is general agreement among teachers - it "makes sense". In school "B", assessment is an integral part of the academic curriculum for academic success. Course work is assessed by grades whose "standards are above those of a normal distribution"; pupils, therefore, must "work harder to achieve the required grades" and justify "more achievement for the more able".

Thus, the categories of curriculum structure, content, method and assessment appear to provide criteria for differentiating schools and identifying within-school differences according to teacher issues of concern with each category. However, apart from within-school differences - which point to the contradiction among staff in each school - and between-school differences in more general meanings attributed to the criteria, the commonality of categories indicates between-school similarities in the criteria adopted by teachers towards this aspect of organisational interaction. In both schools, the criteria relate to teachers' meanings of ethos, (Table 10.2), but do not include their criteria for meanings of organisational climate, (Table 10.1).

There is further dissent among school "B" teachers concerning the replacement of an informal organisation of pastoral care by a formal pastoral structure which competes with the academic curriculum for staff appointments and timetabled time. The Head argues for explicit organisation of pastoral care as "good behaviour is not always the reality - the majority adhere, but there are small pockets of anti-social, and some disruptive behaviour" giving some teachers "a tough time".

Teachers disagree: school traditions of academic excellence can be perceived among some HoDS who challenge the need for such change. They argue for the "central importance of personal relationships" as "concern for others is caught not taught" and "pupils seek teachers with whom they relate". A formal, pastoral structure is "heavy-

handed, clumsy and insensitive" for it "gets in the way of personal relationships" by "emphasising control", "encouraging labelling" and "invading privacy" - and teachers "have no formal right to probe". The teaching of pastoral content competes with a timetable already limited for academic opportunities. Existing courses are sufficient: they are "specific to school needs" and are "healthy, well-taught courses" with "learning value" for they are taught with "professional expertise" and "extend knowledge". Teaching pastoral content with "non school-specific, imported information", inadequate time "to extract the juice" and no assessment, is tantamount to "parlour games - not real learning"; teachers are "casually drafted" with "inadequate qualifications" and "insufficient guidance and training". Compared with the academic curriculum, the pastoral structure is rated as an "imposing, grandiose scheme" with "confused objectives and communication" and "trial and error fumbling" by an "uncoordinated team".

These teachers, of course, could be defending their status and autonomy as others argue an informal pastoral system is too "hit and miss" for "crucial information is not communicated"; schools may not acknowledge "mistakes, casualties, and drop-outs not reaching their potential"; existing taught courses are too limited in content and only relevant for a specific age-range. A formal structure with central control, gives consistent information by providing "necessary channels to co-ordinate communication", "clearly defined roles and responsibilities" and "rights to intervene". Content too, can apply to all pupils.

Thus, the pastoral curriculum not only identifies school differences in structure, content, and methods but also within-school differences with more conflict among school "B" teachers. For both the academic and pastoral curriculum, it seems differences in school aims influence the kind of teacher-pupil relations in school. In both schools, however, teachers' meanings - despite internal contradiction - relate to their definitions of the term, ethos, (Table 10.2), rather than their definitions of organisational climate, (Table 10.1), thus indicating at this level of analysis a separation of terms among teachers within each school. Such a conclusion however, could be an artefact of the teacher perspective of the study.

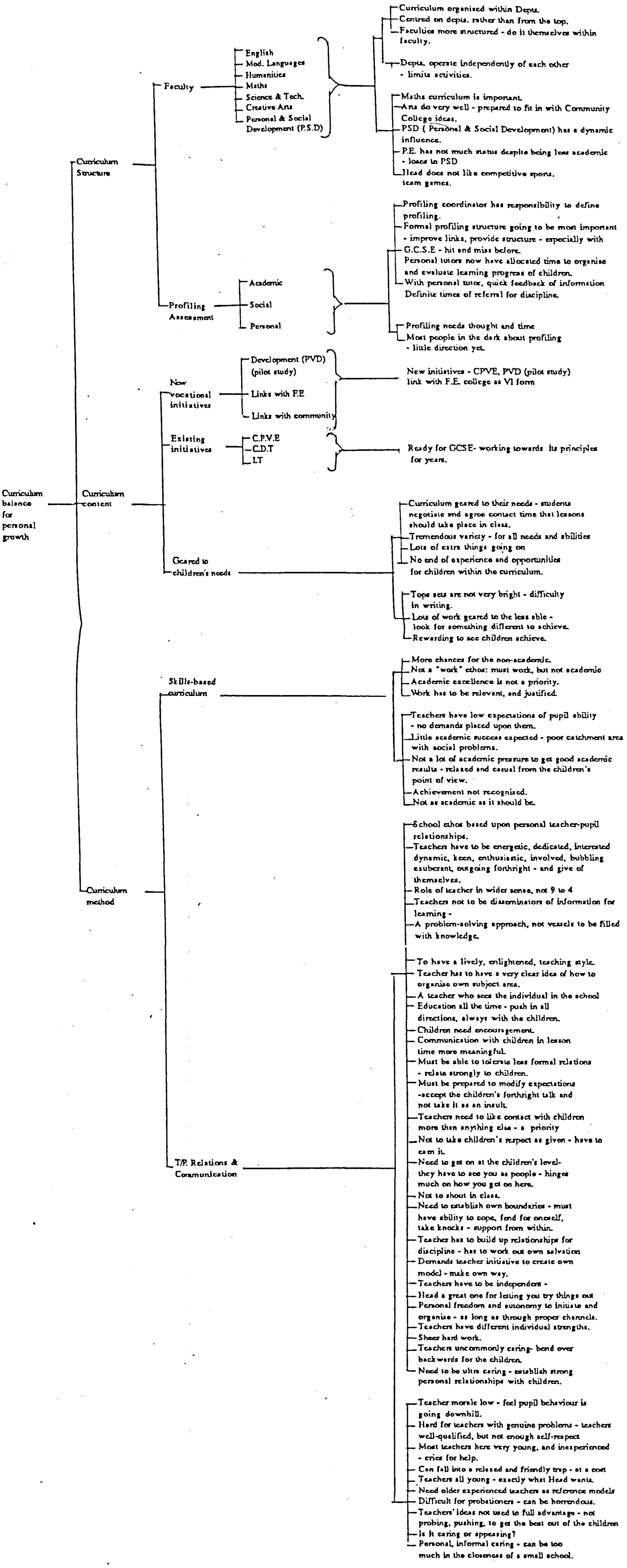
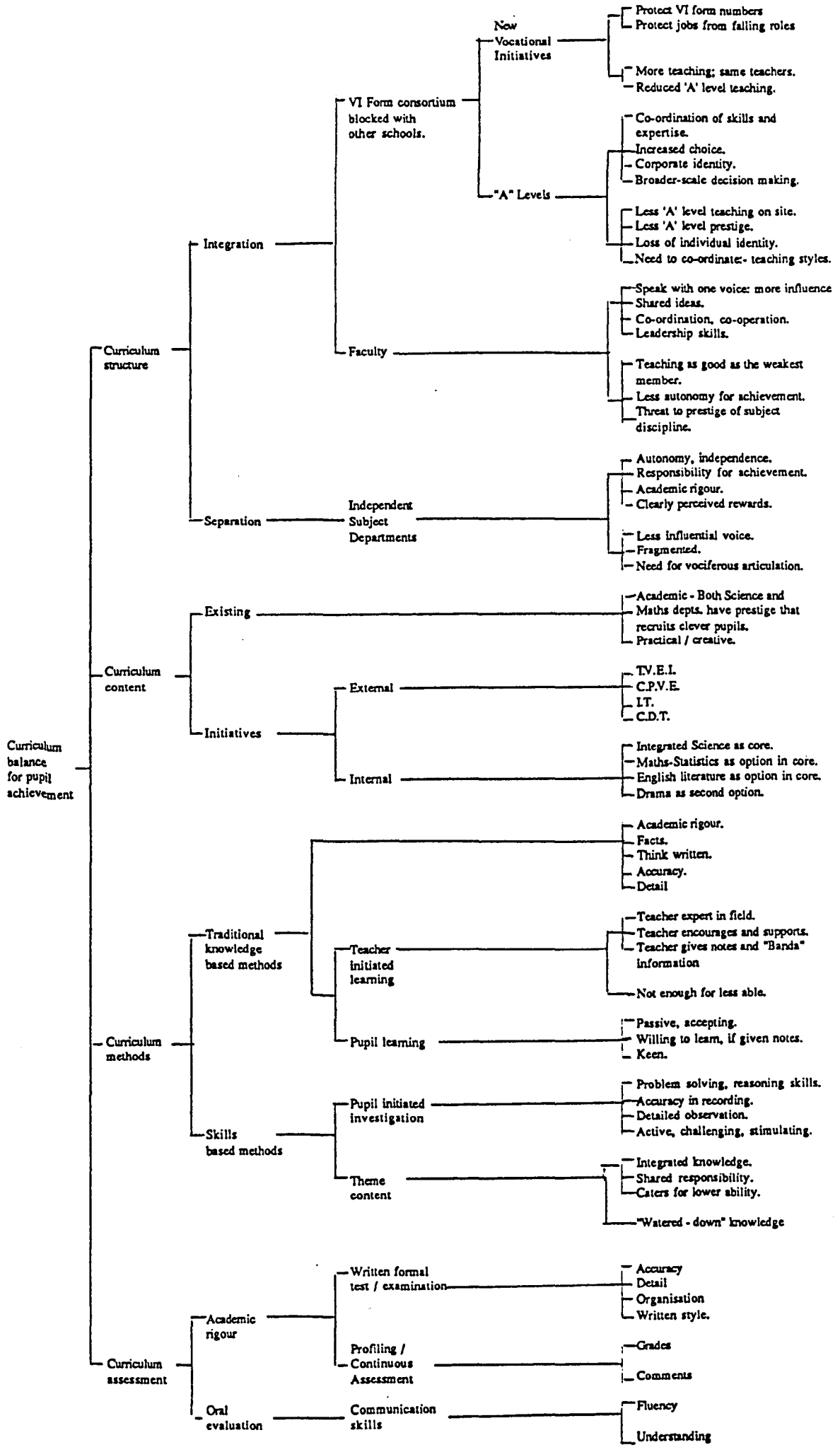


TABLE 10.9
CURRICULUM AND PASTORAL
ISSUES OF CONCERN
[SCHOOL A]



190 TABLE 10.10.

- Pastoral Support
  - Structure
    - Existing: informal
      - +ve
        - "Cared-for" physical environment.
        - Central control.
        - Part of every teacher's role.
        - Related, happy, personal/friendly.
        - Personal contact for developing relationships.
        - Specific to individual needs.
        - Pupils seek teachers with whom they relate.
      - -ve
        - Ambiguous roles & responsibilities.
        - School "trundles along"
        - Mistakes, casualties, drop-outs not reaching potential.
    - Now formal
      - +ve — Necessary
        - Channels and co-ordinates communication.
        - Clearly defined roles & responsibilities.
        - Year Heads given time to deal with problems.
        - Gives "right" to intervene.
      - -ve — Unnecessary
        - Heavy handed.
        - Emphasises control.
        - Gets in the way of personal relationships.
        - Invasion of privacy: no right to probe.
        - Clumsy and insensitive.
        - Vies with curriculum structure.
        - Time allocated to academic learning.
        - Status / influence.
        - Encourages labelling.
  - Content emphasis
    - Existing: "Caught" pervades school life
      - Curriculum
      - Extra curricula
      - School assemblies
      - Interpersonal relationships
        - +ve
          - Achievements praised.
          - Encouraging and supportive.
          - Clearly perceived emphasis on support.
          - Many caring teachers sharing information
          - Sensitive and intuitive.
          - Consistent information.
          - Individual specific.
          - Long-term personal relationships established.
          - Caring concern.
          - Self-confidence developed.
          - Professional commitment
        - -ve
          - Not coordinated.
          - Drop-outs, casualties.
          - Sheltered, protective
    - New: "Taught" allocation of curriculum time
      - Time-tabled
        - Personal social skills
        - Facing society 4th
        - Age specific 5th
        - Regular
          - +ve Curriculum Integrated
            - Specific to school needs.
            - Perceived learning value.
            - Healthy, well-taught courses.
          - -ve
            - Professional expertise.
            - Extended knowledge of pupils.
            - Selective.
          - +ve
            - Personal knowledge of pupils.
            - Not curriculum based.
            - Structured.
            - Coordinated network.
      - Untime-tabled
        - Active tutorials
        - All age
        - Form period
        - Irregular
          - -ve Invasion of curriculum time
            - Trist based
              - Adaptable to specific age-ranges.
              - Some good ideas.
              - Resource book information.
              - Unrelated to existing pastoral courses.
              - Imported information.
              - Not school specific.
              - Parlour games-not real learning.
              - Real issues not taught -race, gender
              - Undeveloped overall policy.
              - Piecemeal addition.
              - Too much, too soon.
            - Lack of professional expertise
              - Jack-of-all-trades.
              - Inadequate qualifications.
              - Lack of guidance and INSET.
              - Relies on personal experience.
            - Lack of timetabled time
              - Rush, hurried.
              - Not thought-through.
              - No juice extracted.
              - Perceived as extra work.
              - Teachers required to do more without time allocation.
              - Encroaches administration time.
  - Standards of excellence
    - Achievement
      - Academic
      - Non-academic
    - Social codes of behaviour to others
      - Polite
      - Courteous
      - Caring concern
    - Personal: Presentation of self
      - Self-confidence
      - Self-respect
      - Self-discipline
      - Self-reliance/ Independence
- Administration
  - Existing: Role model
    - +ve
      - Personal involvement
      - Central control.
      - Consistent information.
      - Central importance of personal relationships.
    - -ve
      - Crucial information sometimes not communicated.
  - Now devolved responsibility
    - Coordinator
    - Year Heads 1-6
    - Form teachers
      - +ve
        - Team responsibility.
      - -ve
        - Uncoordinated team.
        - Confused objectives and communication.
        - No overall cohesive policy.
        - All age - too much, too soon.
        - Trial and error fumbling.
        - Inconsistent content -not sequential - gaps, duplication, ad hoc.
        - Need for central concern.

TABLE 10.11
PASTORAL ISSUES OF CONCERN
[SCHOOL B]

School differences relating to issues of concern with the academic and pastoral curriculum are summarised as follows:

TABLE 10.12

SCHOOL COMPARISON BY ISSUES OF CONCERN: ACADEMIC AND PASTORAL CURRICULUM

	SCHOOL "A"	SCHOOL "B"
PHILOSOPHY	Child centred	Achievement oriented
SCHOOL AIMS	Skills based curriculum	Academic excellence Introducing vocational initiatives for more achievement.
CURRICULUM STRUCTURE	Faculties integrating academic and pastoral curriculum.	15 academic subject departments for discrete academic and pastoral organisation. Integration of curriculum by Faculties resisted by HoDs.
	Emphasis upon personal, informal teacher pupil relationships; existing informal pastoral organisation replaced by formal "profiling" assessment to integrate curriculum and pastoral concerns.	"Active tutorials" introduced for pastoral structure Formal pastoral structure resisted - competes with academic curriculum. Personal relationships with pupils more important.
CONTENT	Lots of work geared to the less able. No end of experience and opportunities.	Full academic curriculum Excellent 'O' and 'A' level results Elitist grammar school traditions. Non school-specific pastoral content is not real learning. Teachers do not have adequate, guidance, and training for taught pastoral curriculum.
TEACHING METHOD	Problem solving approaches to skills-based curriculum. Informal, personal, friendly and relaxed teacher-pupil relationships. Teachers have to justify work as relevant to pupils.	Teachers are experts in their field. Pupils have to "think written" for academic success. Happy, passive, willing responses are rewarded. "Watered down knowledge" for the less able.
ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES	Profiling - interactive continuous assessment incorporating pastoral and academic concerns	Grades and examinations Standards are set above those of the normal distribution to enable more achievement for the more able.

(ii) MANAGEMENT CONTENT

(Fold-out table 10.13, school "A", pp. 198; Fold-out table 10.14, school "B", pp.199)

Networks for management content, (Tables 10.13 & 10.14), summarise teachers' issues of concern with management control of staff and pupils in relation to the academic and pastoral curriculum, decision-making, and the organisational role hierarchy. In representing the "who and what" of school management they outline the perspectives of both management and teachers. Teachers also seem to consider academic and pastoral curriculum issues are also management content issues and not discrete aspects of organisational interaction as assumed by the model. Hence, management content networks for both schools are more elaborate and complex than those for the academic and pastoral curriculum networks alone.

School "B" network patterns are also more complex and detailed than those for school "A". The complexity not only reflects the influence of sudden management change upon existing structures by the arrival of a new headteacher, but also communicates school concerns as a clear and detailed analysis. In contrast, management content for school "A" is on-going, holistic and integrated. The patterns suggest differences are determined by headteacher initiatives reflecting underlying aims and philosophy. With different educational philosophies, headteachers work in different social, political and historical contexts and, therefore, have specific aims to match the perceived needs of such contexts. With different aims, to influence category content, qualitative differences in teachers' issues of concern may be expected. Thus, apart from the influence of headteacher philosophy and initiatives upon the curriculum, decision-making and staffing structures, management content networks appear school-specific. They can be compared only by the criteria of headteacher aims, category relationships and content, and teachers' issues of concern, (Tables 10.13 & 10.14).

Headteacher aims

School "A" headteacher applies a child-centred philosophy to all initiatives, as these are "all part of the school ethos". Progressive aims require informal, "familial" central

control for children from home backgrounds where there are social and emotional problems. Thus, "institutional reinforcements such as structures" are "too much grey area" and must be "kept to the minimum" (Table 10.13). "Familial" control of school decision-making also gives flexibility to introduce initiatives more rapidly in a social, political and historical context for matching pupils' immediate needs, while "familial" control of the timetable provides the most effective means of implementing these in the curriculum - "the "block" timetable gives structure". To assist the achievement of aims, staff are appointed who can demonstrate independence and initiative as members of a collective team "to push school aims and ideas" so these "spill over" on pupils. In this way, school "A" headteacher has central, but indirect management control.

In contrast, the "equal opportunities" philosophy of the newly appointed school "B" Head in an affluent socioeconomic community, maintains high standards of achievement are possible for all and "untapped potential must be harnessed" by broadening the curriculum. Thus, existing, informal curriculum and decision-making structures are "inappropriate for the increasing complexity of schools" as curriculum initiatives become integrated. Formalising such structures enables clear, public recognition of curriculum breadth and integration. Thus, differences in headteachers' direction of control influence organisational structure: school "A" has informal, "familial" management control with "minimal" structures; in school "B" management control is achieved by maximising formal structures for explicit specification of the new roles and shared responsibilities that are required.

Staffing concerns also differ: while both Heads are concerned to employ staff to match school needs, school "B" Head shows more concern for existing staff who are perceived to lack appropriate skills to respond to increasing educational demands for a team-based approach. Teachers are perceived to be too complacent about: (i) standards of academic excellence - teachers are "not in touch with the reality of the business world"; (ii) the need for pastoral organisation - teachers value personal and informal "care and concern"; and (iii) taking responsibility for decision-making - teachers "have been protected from management decisions", (Table 10.14).

Thus, the immediate social, political and historical context to be addressed by a newly appointed Head influences school aims that are qualitatively different from those arising from the context of school "A". In school "A", the Head controls, holistically and indirectly, a continuous process of change; school "B" Head employs direct measures to create fundamental structural changes before initiatives can be introduced.

Category relationships and content

Headteacher initiatives also influence the network patterns and relationships of the curriculum and decision-making categories. As already described, child-centred aims and "familial" control in school "A" influence the academic and pastoral curriculum. The "block" timetable indirectly controls team-based approaches in a skills-based curriculum by allocation of time and staffing. A formal structure of profiling assessment with roles and responsibilities, integrates the academic and pastoral curriculum to communicate "pastoral responsibility as the role of every teacher". In contrast, in the achievement-oriented context of school "B", teachers of 15 subject departments are encouraged to make decisions about how to create timetable space for vocational initiatives to "harness untapped potential and provide opportunities for more achievement". Similarly, Year Heads and tutor teams are encouraged to make decisions about how to create timetable space for the "active tutorials" of the pastoral curriculum. Thus, in school "B", teachers are directed to negotiate decisions for curriculum development.

The schools differ also by their structures for decision-making and communication. With "familial" control, school "A" management structures are minimal, while a forum for "consultative" or shared decision-making in school "B" enables teachers "to make more decisions for themselves".

Teachers' issues of concern

There are between and within-school school differences in teachers' issues with management content. As interpretations of headteacher aims, they also emphasise the distinction between management and employee perspectives of organisations. Some school "A" teachers, for example, perceive "familial control" as "very personal,

informal, relaxed and friendly" and "don't feel any great layers or number of divisions"; for most teachers, school management "lacks direction" for no structure is implemented; "everything is fluid" with "no defined common policies"; teachers seem to need reassurance for "when something is formalised", there is "a sense of direction" which "works like freedom". The uncertainty is reflected in their concerns for classroom control: "there are no rules, so you have to look for support from within"; if you want something done, then do it yourself - solve it if possible for it's no use going to anyone else with problems". If initiative and independence are demonstrated, the Head "encourages promotion - you fit in with the hierarchy" and "get opportunities you would not get elsewhere" - "there are not many Heads who would give such chances". Some teachers however, need "a decisive, caring Head who makes known what he expects of everyone so they know where they stand" for "they are always having to find out how"; they perceive "there is no recognition, no pat on the back for certain teachers" and "pastoral care is needed for the staff". Thus, some school "A" teachers can demonstrate initiative and independence and seem to thrive on uncertainty; others are dependent, seeking guidance, support and reassurance - and are considered "misfits", (Table 10.16, p.207).

Most school "A" teachers also disagree with the lack of forum" for decision-making with "no proper staff meetings, no agenda, no debate, no discussion". The school too, is "not strong on communication" for "there are no processes for transfer of information": there's very little down - and none across"; "major decisions are made by a quick show of hands in a five-minute morning assembly" and "important things can be discussed in the dinner queue", (Table 10.13).

In contrast, school "B" teachers perceive decision-making structures as a means of legitimising unidirectional management control; while some teachers accept formal structures give "clear lines of communication" so teachers "know where they stand" and have "freedom to manoeuvre", others challenge the structural changes as "too much, too soon"; they do not perceive headteacher aims for shared decision-making and guidance to this end, as helpful; they "question the logic of the need to improve standards" and the "need to justify time, content and methods". They perceive no "underlying

philosophy" in the structures: only "democracy engraved on stone tablets - as "isms", (Table 10.14).

Consultative meetings are similarly challenged as "ambiguous" and "surface democracy" for teachers recognise their limited potential to make decisions. They consider shared decision-making is "slow, cumbersome machinery" as everyone "can go round in circles with no decision" and "more hassle" as a consequence. Teachers "are paid to teach" and there are "too many, time consuming meetings" in teachers' "own non-timetabled time" for decisions which are "not important for school policy". The working party for the upper school curriculum has "opened a can of worms" in negotiating timetable allocation; the lower school working party with more junior teachers, has become aware of its "limited expertise for making decisions" about introducing curriculum initiatives into an already tight timetable without HoD's approval.

Thus, management content networks summarise headteachers' and teachers' issues of concern with the academic and pastoral curriculum, opportunities for decision-making, and staffing demands to implement school aims. As might be expected in two different schools, network patterns, category issues and teachers' meanings differ according to headteachers' policies to achieve school aims and demonstrate the school-specific nature of "management content" organisational interaction in a political, social and historical context. Thus, it seems there are fundamental differences in the perspectives of management and employee. However, despite the specificity of each school in this area of organisational interaction - which lies in contrast to the commonality of criteria employed by teachers for academic and pastoral curricula - it seems teachers in both schools are still united in perceiving differences between the terms, ethos and organisational climate: in each school, teachers' issues with management content are synonymous with their meanings of ethos, (Table 10.2), but not with their meanings of the term, organisational climate, (Table 10.1).

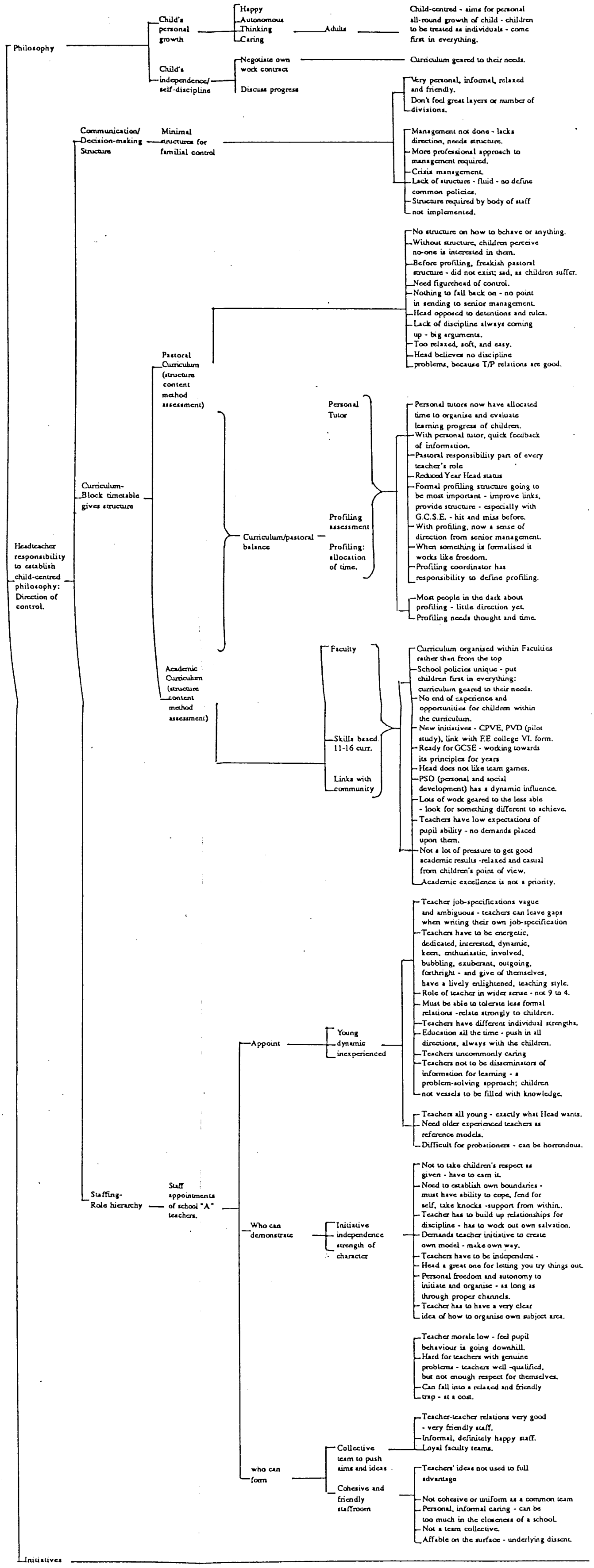


TABLE 10.13
MANAGEMENT CONTENT
ISSUES OF CONCERN
[SCHOOL A]

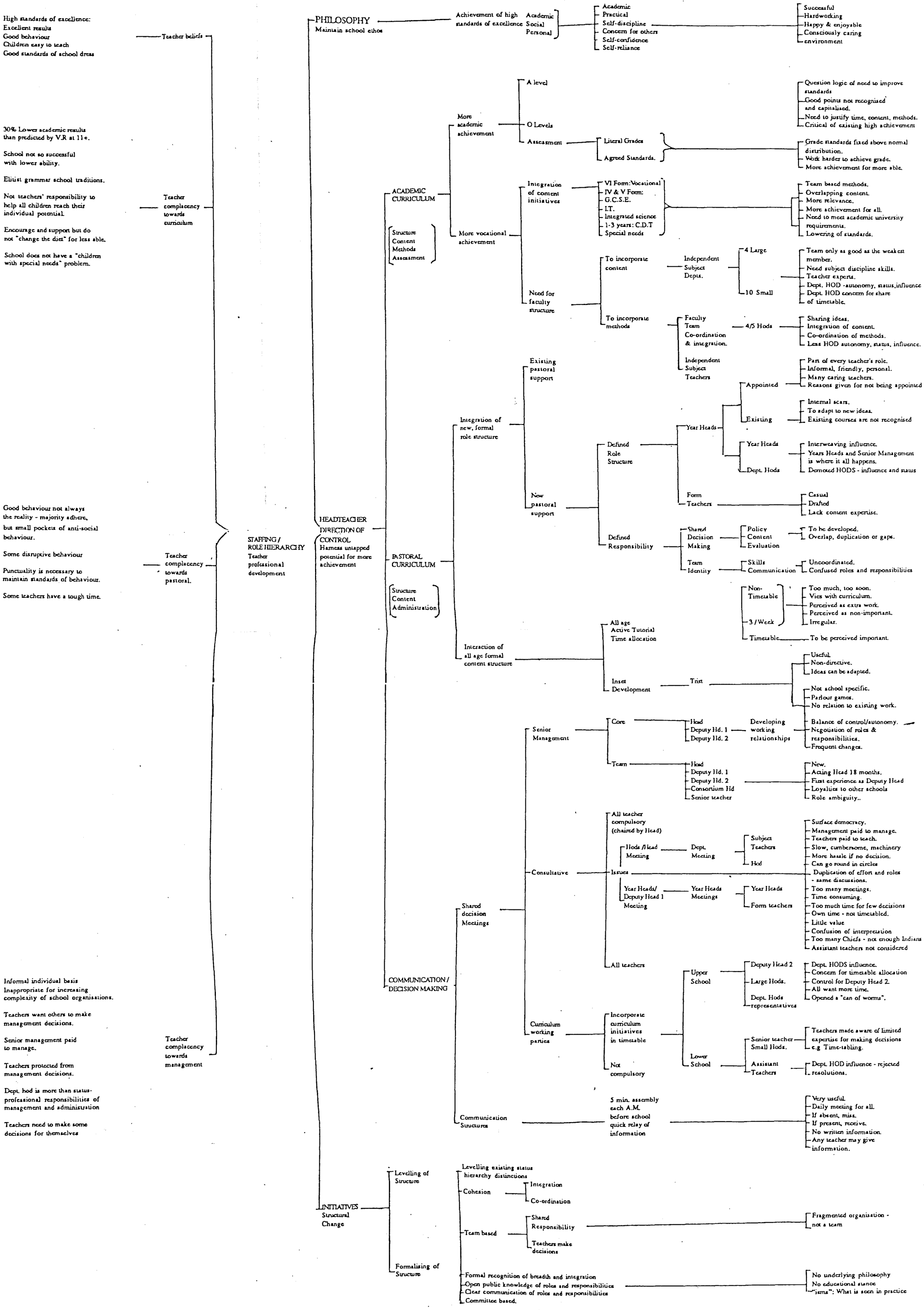


TABLE 10.14
MANAGEMENT CONTENT
ISSUES OF CONCERN
[SCHOOL B]

School differences according to network analyses of management content can be summarised as follows:

TABLE 10.15

SCHOOL COMPARISON BY ISSUES OF CONCERN: MANAGEMENT CONTENT

	SCHOOL "A"	SCHOOL "B"
SOCIAL CONTEXT	Working class, rural community Some children from disadvantaged homes. careers.	Affluent socio-economic community Parents with professional / technical
HEADTEACHER PHILOSOPHY	Child centred, progressive to meet pupils' needs - "familial" control	Achievement - oriented Standards of excellence emphasised. Levelling and formalising of structure for staff to share responsibility for decision making.
CURRICULUM [i] ACADEMIC	Central control of "block" timetable Faculty organisation to share knowledge and ideas in a skills-based curriculum	Staff decision-making to modify curriculum timetable Organisation by subject disciplines. Pupils "think written" for academic excellence in external examinations. Introducing vocational initiatives for more achievement.
[ii] PASTORAL L	"Pastoral care is the role of every teacher" Profiling assessment to integrate pastoral and academic curriculum	Separate pastoral structure with roles and responsibilities for teaching "active tutorials" in timetabled time. Year Heads and tutor teams make decisions.
DECISION MAKING / COMMUNICATION	Informal and personal "Minimal institutional reinforcements - too much grey area" Decisions by "show of hands in 5 min. morning assembly. Important things can be discussed in the dinner queue.	Compulsory attendance at "consultative" staff meeting for shared decision making. Voluntary staff working parties for curriculum development
STAFFING/ ROLE HIERARCHY	Teachers who use problem solving approaches. Teachers who can establish strong teacher-pupil relationships. Promotion for teachers who can demonstrate initiative and independence.	Professional development required to respond to "increasing complexity of secondary school organisations."

(iii) MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

(Fold-out table 10.16, school "A", p.207; Fold-out table 10.17, school "B", p.208]

Networks for management processes are concerned with how teachers perceive the aims and initiatives of management content are implemented by headteachers, (Tables 10.16 & 10.17). In contrast to management content, they have similar patterns and the categories reflect similar teacher issues to suggest schools may be systematically compared by these criteria. Network patterns too, suggest not only between-school differences but also individual differences in teachers' meanings, for experiences of headteachers' management styles appear to invoke personal feelings and reactions.

Network categories demonstrate the significance of headteachers' management style in meeting teachers' personal needs in a work environment, (Tables 10.16 & 10.17). Headteachers' administrative skills, management of decision-making processes, and teacher consideration and support appear to be essential ingredients for the effective communication of initiatives in line with aims and philosophy. These categories are similar to Halpin & Croft's, (1964), perceived leadership style dimensions of "Thrust", "Production Emphasis", "Aloofness" and "Consideration" for determining school organisational climates, but they also reflect the underlying meanings and feelings of teachers as recipients of management style in organisational interaction. Teachers' experiences of management styles reflect the effectiveness of organisational communication as shared meanings. While organisational structures may communicate roles and responsibilities it appears that effective organisational communication is more than message and channel: it includes the shared meanings underlying interaction processes.

Headteacher ideas and initiatives

Schools differ in teachers' perceptions of headteacher ideas and initiatives. School "A" Head, "is full of ideas and initiatives that are in line with and ahead of, current ideas". He is "forward-thinking: perceiving what is going to change, and moving forward all the time". He "makes waves at County Hall". His "charismatic, inimitable and flamboyant" personality and "constant enthusiasm" are "motivating - exciting and self-

fulfilling" for teachers who are "flexible and receptive to change". Some teachers, however, "need stability"; they perceive initiatives as "half-formulated" with so many "chops and changes" one "never knows what's going to happen next" and they feel stressed, (Table 10.16).

In contrast, school "B" Head has "many good ideas" and "energy that sets the pace and gives momentum"; she "gets up and does things" for she "sees the point and acts quickly" - sometimes by means of "quick unilateral decisions without informing necessary colleagues", (Table 10.17). Thus, although teachers expect headteachers to be able to formulate initiatives, they perceive different management styles of implementing these and appear to react personally to such experiences.

Administrative style

Schools also differ in teachers' perceptions of headteachers' administration, (Tables 10.16 & 10.17). This category is more detailed than Halpin & Croft's (1964), factor of "Production Emphasis", (Appendix 2), for teachers identify planning, sequencing, pacing or timing, supervision or delegation, effective communication, and recording or filing as relevant aspects; "Production Emphasis" is concerned most with the degree of supervision.

In school "A", teachers have difficulty in perceiving the planning, sequencing, pacing/timing and supervision of administration for "management is not done" - "it is fluid and lacks structure and direction"; the Head "tries to implement in one go, without considering the consequences". For some teachers, the "inconsistency" of "things not followed through" is perceived as "crisis management" and is "frustrating"; for others, the "chaotic" management is "happy confusion" and "not necessarily ineffective" as the "lack of pressure gives individuals freedom to flourish by trying new ventures". Thus, teachers also appear to be differentially affected by administrative style.

School "B" teachers are critical of administrative style: delegation is perceived as lack of supervision with "ignores the details - just sets ideas in motion". Planning and sequencing is a problem with "duplication, overlap, or gaps" and "problems dealt with

as they arise". For pacing or timing the Head "sets a fast pace" by "thinking on her feet, forging ahead and expecting others to follow". Frequent changes of procedure make "high demands on teachers' time and energy" and create a "frenetic" and "chaotic" work environment with teachers feeling "overwhelmed", "over-pressured", "harassed", "tense" and "stressed". However, organisational change by the arrival of a new Head may have unsettling and uncomfortable effects.

Communication in decision-making

Teachers' react differently to different management styles of communication for decision-making. School "A" is perceived as "not strong on communication" - "teachers are not fully aware of policies" for the Head "doesn't let teachers know what is happening". Decisions are "carried out at the top - where the Head wants to go" - and "very little comes down the line". The Head may "invite some to be involved, but doesn't really want them - and others are not even invited" so "different people have access to different bits of information". The Deputy Head appears "instrumental in policy making" and Faculty Heads have "some autonomy and status" for "decisions are made through them" but the Head of Lower school is "not informed" as "he isn't part of the hierarchy"; staff meetings are also avoided as they cause "direct confrontation".

Thus, "everyone does their own thing" for teachers can only "come together as much as the system allows". To many teachers, decision-making is perceived as "clandestine" with teachers "told to keep information to themselves". All decisions are "verbal"; while this "may appear effective", it creates "a general feeling of uneasiness and apprehension" for decisions are "not open". Thus, teachers want structures - "levels of communication all down the line" with "clear, common directives" and "firm, written common policies".

Lack of communication in decision-making appears to make teachers react to the child-centred philosophy for this is perceived as "rhetoric from the top - almost a weapon used against teachers"; "what the Head says about the school is not what teachers perceive" for although "children's learning is supposed to come first, in reality "it's a question of teachers' survival". Thus, teachers appear to interpret headteacher measures

to promote teacher initiative and independence by indirect control, as a problem of communication.

In school "B", communication in decision-making processes is also an issue despite formal structures, for the term, "consultative", is differentially perceived by teachers. To some, the term means "teachers supply ideas and evidence" with "final decisions by senior management" for "unpopular decisions are necessary at times". Consultative meetings enable issues to be "fully discussed and reasoned" so teachers get to "know others' views and can change own views" as the "wider implications are appreciated". To other teachers, however, the term is "ambiguous" for consultative meetings are experienced as "surface democracy". The Head "chairs all meetings, sets and rearranges agenda" and "operates a tight time schedule" leaving "little time for discussion" or leaving "essential issues until the end"; only "superficial, trivial issues are discussed" and "halted if not in line with the decision required". Decisions are "imposed" with "co-operation assumed" for the Head "talks fast with a volley of words that can also cut people down to size"; teachers "act now and think later" agreeing because they are "not given the chance to argue".

Thus, it appears the aims of shared decision-making are not achieved for they are not communicated as intended: teachers construct different meanings and react personally. While the Head wants teachers to accept more responsibility for policy-making and structures opportunities to this end, teacher autonomy can be threatened by such control. Despite school differences in headteachers' decision-making styles, teachers in each school appear to react personally according to their perceived needs for a balance between individual autonomy and external control.

Consideration and support

Teachers also perceive differences in headteacher styles of consideration and support to which they react personally. School "A" Head is perceived as "very friendly, personal, informal and accessible"; the "door is always open for people to go individually for a chat" - though not for those teachers who want to "challenge, confront, or rock the boat - dominant teachers find a locked door". Those "in the know", therefore, "go

individually to the Head", for "if you want opportunities, you have to make them happen - go and act". These teachers are "definitely happy" - staff are "very friendly" and they know they "do a good job with children".

Other teachers "have no contact with management - no voice" and perceive "too much running to the Head"; the lack of recognition makes them "isolated" and "alienated" for it is "pretty chilly, like the Arctic" when they are "not valued". They feel "bitter and disillusioned" because they "don't fit" and conclude they "must get out". They perceive too, "staff as a whole are not happy" because of "undercurrents"; there is "no common link" for staff to work together and "it's a case of every man for himself". While staff relations may "appear affable on the surface", there is "underlying dissent" with "factions in the staffroom by "everyone wheeling and dealing to get what they want - scale points!" Thus, headteacher aims to promote teacher initiative and independence in line with school philosophy are appreciated by some, but not all staff.

In contrast, school "B" teachers perceive the Head's "direct" style as "very open, very honest, very frank, very reasonable" and "enabling whenever possible"; others, however, interpret this as "critical and abrasive" for "teachers and pupils are people" and the Head "doesn't build bridges by recognising and capitalising the good points", but "tells directly - with sanctions applied if necessary". Teachers no longer "work as a team for "views are not valued" and they feel "threatened" and "insecure".

Thus, teachers, as recipients of headteachers' management styles appear to react in similar ways to Halpin & Croft's (1964), dimensions of perceived "teacher behaviour" for determining school organisational climates -"Hindrance", "Disengagement", "Intimacy", and "Esprit", (Appendix 2). The data, however, also describe teachers' underlying meanings and feelings of such behaviour. Networks of teachers' data concerning the academic and pastoral curriculum and the management content networks bear little resemblance to their meanings of management processes or Halpin & Croft's dimensions. In each school, teachers' meanings of management processes are more comparable with their meanings of the term, organisational climate.

Thus, networks of management content and management processes can be differentiated; the former is concerned with communicating the content - the "what" and "who" of school management; the latter with "how" organisational interaction is managed to achieve shared meanings, and the effect of this communication upon teachers. There may be overlap between headteachers' management content and management style for headteacher philosophy and initiatives of management content provide the basis for management processes. Similarly, without formal structures for communication in management content, teachers may substitute concerns with symbolic communication processes; communication both as social fact and as symbolic process appear necessary for effective organisational communication.

TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE OF MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

Direction or Control: (Management Processes)

Philosophy
- A management problem -two different things between what Head says about school & what teachers and pupils perceive.
- What is implemented does not achieve aims
- Children's learning supposed to come first, but in reality they are not catered for.

Initiative (Thrust)
- Charismatic, inimitable, flamboyant - loves a sense of drama.
- Constant enthusiasm.
- Good P.R. man.
- Very unusual and remarkable - but difficult to know
- Values those who give support and reassurance.
- Benevolent father figure - familial control.
- Innovative - full of ideas and initiatives - in line with -and ahead of current educational ideas.
- Forward-thinking: perceives what is going to change; moves forward all the time; anything can happen.
- Makes waves at County Hall - puts his neck out, and gets on with it.
- Head does the initiating - others implement: talks to first one, then another, and hopes they meet.
- Head done much to pull up the school by boot strings
- Half-formulated ideas:"We'll have that! Sort it out".
- Chops and changes - one minute this, next that.
- Never know what is going to happen next.
- Too much change: jumps too much, too rapidly.

Administration (Production emphasis)
- Planning
- Sequencing
- Pacing / Timing
- Supervision
  - Administration works to a point, but not smoothly - lacks direction.
  - Management not done - lack of structure- fluid, with no defined common policies.
  - Does not delegate - others not involved.
  - Tries to implement ideas in one go, without considering the consequences.
- Effective communication
  - School not strong on communication; no process for transfer of polices - very little down, none across.
  - Head won't say what his ideas are, or let you know what is happening.
  - Necessary information not always told to H.O.F.S. or teachers.
  - Teachers not fully aware of policies.
  - Different people have different bits of access to information.
- Recording/ Filing
  - No written statements - word of mouth.
  - Decisions never written down - all verbal.

Decision Making Processes (Aloofness)
- Head in control of everything - runs the school; carries the can; his show.
- Chairman of all committees; PTA kept at a distance.
- Respects Union power, but works round it to achieve own ends.
- Power lies with the Head - ultimately in charge of everything - very clever.
- Decisions very carefully worked out - where Head wants to go. he makes the decisions.
- Decisions carried out at the top - very little comes down the line - teachers not part of it.

Senior Management Team
- Deputy HD. 1
  - DH 1. personal, homely, soothing, and caring.
  - Strong, mutual bond with Head - instant support for each other: instrumental in policy making.
- Deputy HD. 2
  - DH 2. logistic, task and career - oriented: information-seeking but no feedback to teachers.
- Head of Lower School
  - Hd. of Lower School often not informed - not regarded as part of hierarchy - a different interpretation of management.
  - Good administrator, incisive, and efficient.

Middle Management
- Hds. of Faculty have autonomy and status - decisions made through them.

Teachers
- Forum
  - Formal Structures
    - Decisions made first, then small meetings, excluding many staff.
    - Lack of forum - no proper staff meetings, no agenda, no debate, no discussion.
    - Head needs flexibility to operate if difficult to agree-always wins in the end.
    - Major decisions possible by quick show of hands in 5 min. morning assembly.
  - Personal and Informal
    - Very accessible - door always open for people to go individually "for a chat".
    - Encourages staff to go and see him once a month - wants to be kept informed.
    - Very personal - important things can be discussed in corridor or dinner queue.
    - Too much running to the Head.

Effective Interpersonal Communication (Consideration)

The school "A" teacher
- Head Strategy
  - Head encourages, enables, supports.
  - Says "Yes" if humanly possible, especially if in the children's interests.
  - Head wants teachers to have ideas.
  - Encourages promotion, if you fit with the hierarchy.
  - Those "in the know" all go individually to the Head.
  - Get opportunities would not get elsewhere.
  - Not many Heads give such chances.
  - Have got to know what he wants -says when you have gone too far.
- Teacher Strategy
  - If you want opportunities, got to make them happen - go and see.
  - Have ideas to initiate- do homework first
  - Say what you are expected to say: must defend school and policies - sell school's image.
  - Head likes to think he's giving advice - use it for own power and autonomy.
  - Need tact and diplomacy-then you get on
  - Appear efficient, organised, articulate, capably determined.
  - Choose the right moment, smile all the time - don't moan - be very positive.
  - Best not to talk shop in staffroom - keep own counsel.
  - If serious write - seem as more important

"Misfits"
- Head Strategy
  - Head treats teachers like the children - they have to find out how.
  - Need a decisive, caring Head who makes known what he expects of everyone, so they know where they stand.
  - Need for pastoral care for the staff.
  - No recognition, no pat on the back, no reassurance for certain teachers.
  - Has Faculty favourites - if in favour inside building, others outside.
  - Teachers can be riding on the crest of a wave and fall down flat.
  - Head ignores/does not recognise certain teachers - feel they must go.
- Teacher Strategy
  - Must not confront, criticise, or challenge the system-don't rock the boat
  - No contact with management - no voice.

TEACHERS REACTIONS TO MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

- Rhetoric from the top of child centred emphasis -almost a weapon used against teachers.
- What you see is not what it seems -a matter of survival

(Hindrance)
- Motivates others.
- Exciting and self-fulfilling -look forward to school each day.
- Teachers have to be flexible, receptive to change, open to fallible ideas - not staid.
- Head gets a lot of support for his ideas, but a lot don't trust.
- Too much change, too rapidly creates stress.
- Teachers not ready for the pace.
- Need stability.
- Some things could be better planned, but other qualities would be lost.
- not necessary ineffective -
- lack of pressure allows one to flourish, gives autonomy and freedom to try - happy confusion.
- Chaotic
- Ineffective
- Inconsistent - things not followed through.
- Frustrated.
- Crisis management.
- Need levels of communication all down the line.
- Organisation appears effective, but information transfer is not always open.
- Information transfer by word of mouth does not work for a lot of people.
- Insecure - teachers need clear directives.
- General feeling of uneasiness and apprehension.
- Need firm, written, common policies.

(Disengagement)
- Frustrated - teachers not part of formal decision making
- Ruthless operator - iron hand in velvet glove; very much a presence.
- Everyone does own thing - come together as much as the system allows.
- Don't really work together as a staff - no common link.
- Got to recognise DH1. if you want support from the Head.
- Not done to run down DH1 to the Head.
- Deep feelings among teachers over DH1 appointment - a professional problem.
- A nebulous position - isolated - no influence.
- Head appoints young, and female, Faculty Hds. who are frighteningly raw.
- Too much power in middle management.
- Easier for women to get to the top.
- Head invites teachers to be involved - but does not really want them; some not even invited.
- No chance to make decisions.
- Manipulates and exploits others to do what he wants.
- Achieves ends by intrigue - going around in own way.
- Promises have face value - never openly says "No" - agrees with everyone - can't trust.
- Head avoids confrontation.
- Drag,drag, then snap decisions - affects everyone.
- Very accessible.
- Very personal, informal and friendly, but I'm not a formal person.
- Clandestine - teachers told to keep information to themselves - they fall for it every time.
- Find a locked door if dominant.

(Esprit)
- Definitely happy - knows does a good job with children.
- Informal, definitely happy staff.
- Teacher - teacher relations very good -very friendly staff.

(Intimacy)
- Pretty chilly, like the Arctic - thankless - not valued.
- Don't fit - isolated, alienated - must get out.
- Bitter and disillusioned.
- Staff as a whole are not happy.
- Not cohesive or uniform as a team collective, not a family.
- Affable on the surface - underlying dissent.
- Everyone wheeling and dealing to get what they want- scale points.
- Factions in the staff room - even members in a group may disagree: need mutual respect.
- Undercurrents - every man for himself.
- Not much cross faculty relations.

TABLE 10.16
MANAGEMENT PROCESSES
ISSUES OF CONCERN
[SCHOOL A]

MANAGEMENT PROCESSES ISSUES OF CONCERN
"SCHOOL B"

TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE OF MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

TEACHERS' REACTIONS TO MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

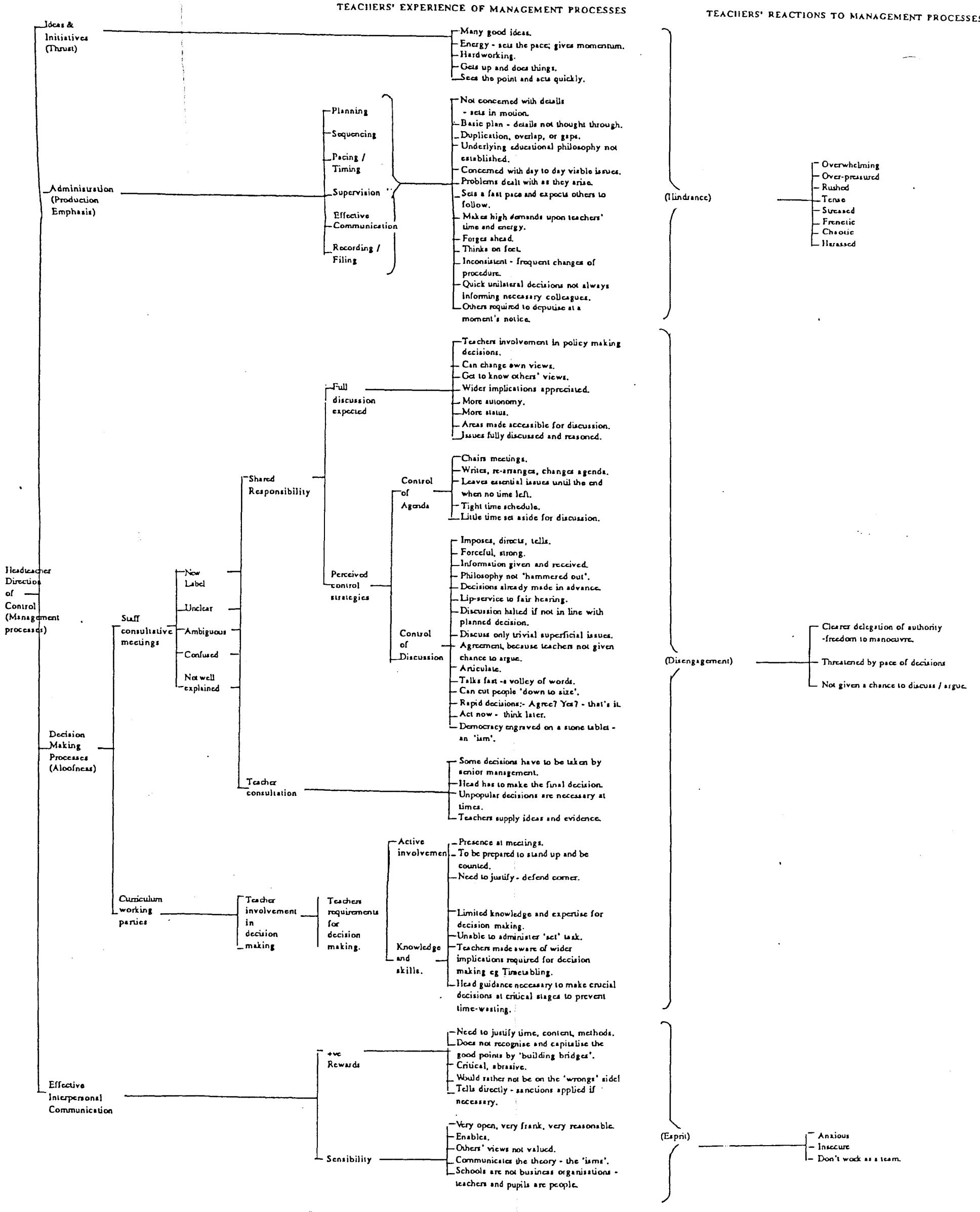


TABLE 10.17
MANAGEMENT PROCESSES
ISSUES OF CONCERN
[SCHOOL B]

Thus, management processes may be nested within management content or may overlap but clearly, they are not synonymous. They can be summarised as follows:

TABLE 10.18

SCHOOL COMPARISON BY ISSUES OF CONCERN:

MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

	SCHOOL "A"	SCHOOL "B"
MANAGEMENT STYLE		
[i] IDEAS AND	In line with and ahead of, current ideas. Forward thinking - moves forward all the time. Makes waves at County Hall	Many good ideas and energy that set the pace and give momentum Sees the point and acts quickly
[ii] ADMINISTRATION	Fluid - no defined policies Lacks direction No sequencing or pacing - tries to implement in one go without considering consequences. Inconsistent and chaotic Crisis management	Management is not done Not concerned with the details - just sets ideas in motion. Concern for day to day problems as they arise. Duplication overlap and gaps. Sets a fast pace - thinks on feet, forges ahead and expects others to follow. Inconsistent - frequent changes of procedure. Frenetic, tense, stressed.
[iii] DECISION - MAKING / COMMUNICATION	No processes for information transfer. Different people have different bits of information. Decisions carried out at the top - very little comes down the line. Head won't say what his ideas are or let one know what is happening. Decisions never written down - not open. Uneasiness and apprehension. Philosophy is rhetoric from the top - in reality a question of survival.	Consultative is ambiguous Final decisions by senior management. Surface democracy - trivial issues discussed. Decisions imposed; co-operation assumed. Fast talk - no chance to argue. Agree by "Act now - think later". Sets and rearranges agenda
[iv] CONSIDERATION AND SUPPORT	Friendly, personal, informal and accessible - door always open, though not for those who want to "rock the boat". For opportunities make them happen "go and act".Happy staffroom - versus Dependent teachers have "no contact, no voice, not valued, don't fit and must get out" Every man for himself - no common link. Underlying dissent Factions in the staff room - everyone wheeling and dealing for scale points	Very open, very frank and very reasonable - enabling whenever possible Critical and abrasive - versus Does not recognise good points - tells directly with sanctions if necessary. Have to justify time, content and methods. Would rather not be on the "wrongs" side. Teachers not valued, feel threatened and insecure.

3. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEFINITIONS AND ISSUES OF CONCERN

School comparison of the network analyses of teachers' issues of concern with the academic and pastoral curriculum, management content and management processes have so far indicated the following:

(1) teachers' issues with organisational interaction are influenced by the ways in which headteachers' communicate their educational philosophy and initiatives by overt structures and symbolic processes;
(2) there are school differences in teachers' issues of concern;
(3) academic and pastoral curriculum issues are not discrete areas of organisational interaction as assumed by the model but - as separate or integrated structures - are subsumed under issues of management content;
(4) management content issues relate to the direction of control for the "who" and "what" of school management which is communicated by curriculum, decision-making and staffing structures; each structure is the outcome of initiatives influenced by headteachers' underlying philosophy to make management content school specific.
(5) issues with management processes are concerned with teachers' perceptions and feelings of "how" headteachers implement initiatives; categories suggest there are common dimensions by which schools - and possibly other organisations - can be compared according to individual differences in teachers' perceptions and feelings.

Thus, issues with management content and with management processes seem to concern different aspects of management. The concerns of management content also appear school specific while the concerns of management processes appear capable of systematic comparison. For each school, the differences between issues with management content and those with management processes can be compared with teachers' different definitions for school ethos and organisational climate. Within each school, for instance, ethos definitions and issues of concern with management content appear to be related, as do definitions of organisational climate and issues of concern with management processes. The similarities can be summarised by comparing summary categories and meanings for each school as follows:

(i) MEANINGS OF ETHOS AND ISSUES WITH MANAGEMENT CONTENT

[Fold-out table 10.19, p.213]

Despite differences of nomenclature - due, perhaps, to issues of management content reflecting both management and teachers' perspectives while ethos represents only the latter - both categories appear to include similar meanings. For example, meanings for physical environment, (ethos), may be compared with those for social context, (management content), since both concern the perceived adequacy/ inadequacy of school and social contexts. Meanings for the ethos category of school image can also be equated with meanings for headteacher philosophy of management content.

Similarly, meanings for ethos categories of academic excellence, teacher/pupil relations, pupil attitude and personal standards appear to summarise meanings for structure, content, methods and assessment of the academic and pastoral curriculum subsumed under management content.

Meanings for school discipline, (ethos), are also related to meanings of communication in decision-making, (management content). However, teacher-parent relations, (ethos), with "school still a second choice for parents" appears to have little place in either school "A" headteacher's or teachers' perceptions of management content, while for school "B" parents are "influential" in decisions concerning curriculum development.

Thus, a strong relationship appears to exist between teachers' issues of concern with management content and meanings of school ethos: meanings of ethos appear to summarise issues with management content; both reflect the headteacher's underlying philosophy, management content by the structure, content, methods and assessment of the academic and pastoral curriculum - and ethos, by the nature of teacher-pupil relationships.

As a recognisable school ethos conveys "a strong sense of what the school is trying to do" and "what kind of school it is", (Mortimore 1988), it seems headteachers' direction of control of the curriculum can determine the qualitative characteristics that define

school ethos. Teachers, however, appear to respond in 4 ways. They either:

(i) do not perceive the philosophy;

(iii) perceive and accept philosophy but do not accept the policies;

(iv) perceive and accept philosophy and policies;

Thus, it seems that for consensus of a "strong sense" of ethos, teachers must accept both philosophy and policies.

SUMMARY
MEANINGS OF ETHOS AND ISSUES WITH MANAGEMENT CONTENT.

SCHOOL "A"

ETHOS		MANAGEMENT CONTENT	
PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT	Litter problem, draughty rooms cheap fittings.	SOCIAL CONTEXT	Working class, rural community; Some children from disadvantaged homes.
SCHOOL IMAGE	Child centred, progressive. Relaxed, friendly informal atmosphere	HEADTEACHER PHILOSOPHY	Child centred, progressive to meet pupils' needs; "familial control"
		CURRICULUM [ACADEMIC] [& PASTORAL]	
ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE	Vocational, skills based curriculum. Academic results not a priority. Tremendous variety for all needs and abilities.	STRUCTURE	Block timetable; 7 faculties to integrate knowledge and ideas
		CONTENT	Skills based curriculum Lots of work geared to less able Pastoral care is the role of every teacher.
TEACHER/PUPIL RELATIONS	Children come first in everything. Treat children as individuals. Teachers identify with children		
PUPIL ATTITUDE	Work has to be relevant and justified.	METHOD	Problem solving approaches Informal, personal, friendly relationships Children need encouragement.
PERSONAL STANDARDS	Emphasise development of self-confidence, responsibility and independence.	ASSESSMENT	Profiling to integrate academic and pastoral curricula
		STAFFING /ROLE HIERARCHY	Must be able to establish strong personal relationships with children. Teachers with energy and initiative who can demonstrate independence.
SCHOOL DISCIPLINE	No structures on how to behave. No lines of referral. Children encouraged to challenge rules.	DECISION MAKING / COMMUNICATION	Informal and personal. Minimal institutional reinforce-ments
TEACHER PARENT RELATIONS	School still a second choice for parents.		

SUMMARY
MEANINGS OF ETHOS AND ISSUES WITH MANAGEMENT CONTENT.

SCHOOL "B"

ETHOS		MANAGEMENT CONTENT	
PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT	Well-cared for, attractive surroundings	SOCIAL CONTEXT	Affluent community Parents with professional/ technical careers
SCHOOL IMAGE	Academic achievement Happy school	HEADTEACHER PHILOSOPHY	Achievement-oriented Standards of excellence Equal opportunities for all Integrated structures & curriculum
		CURRICULUM [ACADEMIC]	
ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE	Full academic curriculum Above-average ability intake Excellent "O" & "A" level results	STRUCTURE CONTENT	15 subject departments Elitist grammar school traditions Full academic curriculum Simpler knowledge for less able Introducing vocational initiatives
		METHOD ASSESSMENT	Pupils' "think written" Grades set above average for more achievement Excellent "A" & "O" level results
TEACHER/PUPIL RELATIONS.	Conscious, caring concern Teachers very commited - bend over backwards to help Shelter and protect Reward happy, passive, willing responses	[PASTORAL] STRUCTURE	Was personal and informal; Now formal with roles & duties;
PUPIL ATTITUDE	Happy and smiling children who enjoy school Keen - want to work	CONTENT METHOD	Active tutorials in timetable time Social & personal excellence Protect and support pupils Consciously-caring concern
PERSONAL	Standards of excellence emphasised	ASSESSMENT	Reward happy willing responses Indequate training for taught pastoral curriculum
		STAFFING/ROLE HIERARCHY	Teachers are experts in their field Professional development required to respond to increasing complexity of secondary school organisations
SCHOOL DISCIPLINE	High standards of behaviour Few discipline problems Good-mannered, courteous, Consistent message from the top Clear lines of referral	DECISION / MAKING COMMUNICATION	Consultative meetings for shared decision-making Working parties for curriculum development
TEACHER PARENT RELATIONS	Influential - keen for sciences		Influence curriculum development decisions for separate sciences in timetable time.

TABLE 10.19
TEACHERS' MEANINGS OF ETHOS
AND ISSUES WITH MANAGEMENT CONTENT
[SCHOOLS A & B]

(ii) MEANINGS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AND MANAGEMENT PROCESSES, (Fold-out table 10.20. p.215)

Categories for the meanings of organisational climate and issues with management processes also have similar meanings, with organisational climate definitions summarising the issues of management processes.

Unlike categories for ethos and management content, organisational climate and management processes have similar categories; both relate to headteachers' administration, ideas and initiatives, decision-making processes, consideration and support affecting staff relations of a work environment and as such, are similar to Halpin & Croft's, (1964), dimensions for school organisational climate. Unlike categories for ethos and management content, these categories can apply to employees' experiences of management processes in organisations other than schools.

The similarity of categories, however, may reflect the significance of a "teachers only" perspective with teachers as recipients of the symbolic aspects of management interaction: management content categories communicate management structures as social facts which are differentially perceived by teachers. Meanings for organisational climate and management processes also reflect teachers' affective reactions to the symbolic aspects of management communication. The intensity of these suggests management processes are individually experienced and affect teachers' concepts of themselves in this context.

Thus, it seems ethos may be a context-specific organisational attribute which is differentially perceived, while organisational climate is an individual attribute, personally experienced. An interpretation in these terms would account for the unanticipated finding of different definitions for ethos and organisational climate; it would also address the question posed by this study concerning the extent to which organisational climate is a truly individual attribute or a global, symbolic organisational attribute of shared meanings. The data suggest, that although teachers' may personally experience the symbolic aspects of interaction processes, some - but not all - meanings are shared by different individuals.

SUMMARY
MEANINGS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE &
ISSUES WITH MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

SCHOOL "A"

	ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE		MANAGEMENT PROCESSES
GENERAL ADMIN.	Crisis management. Lack of structure. No information transfer.	ADMINISTRATION	Crisis management. Management is not done. Fluid-no defined policies. Lacks direction Implements in one go without considering consequences.
DEGREE OF STRUCTURE.	Need common directories v. Lack of pressure gives freedom to operate.		
PACE OF CHANGE	Too much, too rapid. Inconsistent v. stimulating.		Inconsistent and chaotic.
MANAGEMENT (I) INITIATIVES	Constant enthusiasm motivates others v. Iron hand in velvet glove.	INITIATIVES	In line with and ahead of current ideas. Forward thinking. Makes waves at County Hall.
(II) DECISION MAKING	No opportunities to participate.	DECISION MAKING / COMMUNICATION	No processes for information transfer. Different people have different bits of information. Decisions carried out at top. Head won't say what his ideas are. Decisions never written down. Uneasiness and apprehension Philosophy is only rhetoric from top.
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS.			
I. HEADTEACHER / TEACHER	Very personal, informal, relaxed v. clandestine. Have to take initiative and go separately to Head v. must "get out".	CONSIDERATION AND SUPPORT	Friendly, personal, informal and accessible - door always open, though not for those who want to rock the boat. For opportunities go and act - make them happen.
II. TEACHER - TEACHER	Informal, happy v. factions in staff room. Affable on surface, dissent below.		Happy staffroom versus no contact no voice; not valued, don't fit. Every man for himself. Underlying dissent.

SUMMARY
MEANINGS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE &
ISSUES WITH MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

SCHOOL "B"

	ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE		MANAGEMENT PROCESSES
GENERAL ADMINISTRATION	Crisis management. Too much structure. Turmoil	ADMINISTRATION	Crisis management. Not concerned with the details - just sets ideas in motion More concern for day-to-day problems as they arise Inconsistent - frequent changes of procedure
DEGREE OF STRUCTURE.	Overwhelming organisation Delegation of authority		
PACE OF CHANGE	Work 3x faster to stand still v. Radical changes were necessary		Sets a fast pace - thinks on feet-forges ahead and expects others to follow. Frenetic, tense and stressed
MANAGEMENT (I) INITIATIVES	Head works harder than anyone	INITIATIVES	Many good ideas Energy that sets the pace and gives momentum Sees the point and acts quickly
(II) DECISION MAKING	Surface democracy - ideas imposed or rushed through	DECISION MAKING / COMMUNICATION	"Consultative" is ambiguous v. Final decisions have to be taken by senior management; Surface democracy - trivial issues; Sets and rearranges agenda Decisions imposed; co-operation assumed; Fast talk - no chance to argue; Agree by "Act now - think later"
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS.			
I. HEADTEACHER / TEACHER	Direct, single-minded v. creates tense, agitated and stressed teachers	CONSIDERATION AND SUPPORT	Very open, very frank and very reasonable - enabling where possible v. critical and abrasive; Does not recognise good points Tells directly with sanctions if necessary Have to justify time, content and methods Teachers not valued, feel threatened and insecure
II. TEACHER - TEACHER	Friendly Powerful HoDs with status		Friendly - but no longer work as a team

TABLE 10.20
TEACHERS' MEANINGS OF
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AND
ISSUES WITH MANAGEMENT PROCESSES
[SCHOOLS A & B]

V. CONCLUSIONS

The qualitative approach of this study has yielded some unanticipated results that direct attention to the significance of symbolic data. Analyses of interview data, apart from indicating school differences in issues of curriculum, pastoral and management interaction also indicate teachers, as recipients of school management interaction, make distinctions between meanings of the terms, ethos and organisational climate. It seems too, schools can be differentiated by each of these meanings.

In each school, ethos appears to be the general and relatively enduring outcome of management policies and philosophies to operate the school curriculum. Influenced by an historical, social and political context, educational philosophies become manifest in school policies that interrelate the curriculum structure, content, method and assessment in unique ways to affect teacher/pupil, pupil/pupil and teacher/parent relationships. Thus, network patterns for management content suggest ethos may be school-specific. Management content categories are communicated as "social facts" and can be perceived by "outsiders" as well as "insiders". However, this does not mean the perceived outcome, ethos, is always supported: people can disagree with the philosophy and/or management policies.

Unlike categories for ethos and management content, categories of organisational climate relate to headteacher/teacher and teacher/teacher relationships arising from management processes to implement school policies. The same categories apply to both management processes and definitions of organisational climate to provide criteria by which schools can be systematically compared. The criteria could also apply to management/employee relationships in organisations other than schools. Unlike ethos, organisational climate categories support Halpin & Croft's (1964), dimensions of perceived leadership style for conceptualising organisational climate.

Teachers' meanings of management processes and organisational climate are also imbued, even charged, with feelings to suggest they react personally to experiences of management processes. Feelings are not a feature of ethos definitions and management

content networks. Teachers would also have to experience management processes for the term to be described, and so meanings of organisational climate would be unavailable to those outside the confines of the staffroom. Experiences of management processes appear to enable or inhibit fulfilment of intentions according to how the symbolic communication processes affect individual self-esteem.

Thus, teachers' meanings of the construct identify the role of human agency, not management control, as the control factor. The underlying, symbolic aspects of management processes appear to enable teachers to seek, maintain or lose a personal balance in a bipolar dimension of individual autonomy and external control. The balance is negotiable and therefore mutable in the continuous process of organisational interaction. A personal, bipolar dimension of autonomy/control inferred by this teacher perspective and qualitative methodology conflicts with the discrete dimensions of autonomy and control identified by traditional quantitative studies with a management perspective of climate.

Organisational climate therefore, may have psychological importance as an individual, personal construct. In a school sense, it can only exist as a complex, ever-changing set of multiple realities or shared meanings among colleagues in continuous negotiation. This conclusion extends the findings of earlier empirical studies which have suggested the construct varies across and within sub-groups of organisations.

This interpretation of the data has not been made lightly. While researcher subjectivity of qualitative methodology challenges the unanticipated, chance finding of differences in term meanings, there is a consistency and persistent logic about the teachers' data which needs to be defended for verification by a wider community. Explanation is necessary, therefore, at each stage of the methodology influenced by researcher subjectivity - interview questions, content analyses, frequency data and network analyses - to justify this interpretation.

Interview questions

Inclusion of the two questions to define (i) organisational climate and (ii) ethos can be

challenged as a highly artificial exercise for, it can be argued, to include such questions is to assume different meanings. The possibility of separate meanings however, was never considered; conversely, similar meanings for both terms were anticipated. Teachers were expected to define organisational climate as the climate of the school organisation itself - not the way in which it was organised - and so establish for teachers the correspondence between terms as assumed by earlier climate studies. For teachers, the term organisational climate would be drawn from the field of organisational research, while ethos was relatively familiar as a term of everyday language. The two questions therefore, served to introduce and establish the parameters of the interview and ensure teachers' understanding in terms defined by their everyday language. Descriptions of the terms as they applied in each school, (questions 2 & 4), were intended to facilitate the researcher's interpretation of teachers' understanding of the terms and, at the same time, gather qualitative data that might suggest school differences.

In practice, the questions not only elicited responses but created genuine discussions in which different tacit meanings for each of the terms became apparent. Thus, the possibility of school distinctions for each of the terms, has to be recognised. To counter the charge of researcher subjectivity it can be argued this interpretation could have stemmed equally from careful listening skills in efforts to reach understanding and agreement. There are other possible explanations for the separation of terms:

1. It could have been an artefact of "cognitive set" due to question order - so teachers assumed the second question required an alternative meaning. Question order, however, cannot account for the consistency of teachers' differentiation across both schools.
2. It is also possible, though unlikely, teachers had previous knowledge of the research term, organisational climate.
3. The term could have provided a convenient label for expressing current feelings - though again, this is unlikely for, with the term as the first question of the interview, teachers probably would be seeking a more formal definition.
4. There could have been little conscious awareness of the term but, by free association, teachers were able to snatch a commonsense meaning from school

experiences.

5. Similarly, with little conscious awareness of the term, understanding could have been embedded in perceptions and feelings at a pre-existing, but not pre-labelled direct experience, perhaps, from a number of work situations. Each of these states could explain teachers' consistency in differentiating the terms.

Content analyses and frequency data

Researcher subjectivity too, may be levelled at the content analyses and frequency data of teachers' statements which, in categorising and summarising individual data, indicate not only a distinction between terms but school differences for each term. The categories however, are simple, common-sense categories determined by sorting the overwhelming detail of teachers' statements, with ambiguous statements categorised according to the context of the specific interview. The frequencies too, may skew interpretation and conflate misinterpretation for they tally idiosyncratic data: they reflect only the comments of teachers for whom these meanings were significant in the context of the interview discussion, so schools cannot be systematically compared. Frequency data, however, are not used to describe the existence of real, school differences by teachers' term definitions: they just point to this possibility.

The content analyses assume respondents' agreement because of the level of understanding sought with each teacher during the interview. No attempt has been made to check for reliability by concordance with others as no-one else was present during the interview to gain this level of understanding and so justify it in the context of the data. Neither have the categories been confirmed with the respondents. Thus, it is acknowledged, data classified according to criteria corresponding with the researcher's growing awareness of term distinctions, are subjective.

To parry this criticism, however, it is argued the categories reflect the criteria according to the sense made by the researcher of how teachers make sense of the terms - a sense established during the interview by paraphrasing teachers' responses for verification. The significance of seeking understanding or empathy between researcher and respondent during the interview procedure, cannot be discounted. It is also argued that

further verification by seeking confirmation from respondents is, at this stage, worthwhile only if the interpretation to date can be justified.

Network analyses

Researcher subjectivity can also be levelled at the network analyses, used as an heuristic to reduce data by categorising individual meanings. By linking individual data to underlying dimensions, it is assumed networks can demonstrate levels of analysis unavailable to quantitative approaches of organisational climate. To this end, individual data are recorded as meanings-in-contrast and extended into hierarchies of categories. Despite the logic of this process to achieve objectivity, network construction is the responsibility of the researcher. Networks, therefore, represent the best fit of data according to the personal logic and assumptions of the researcher.

The analyses, for example, do not wholly conform to either Weber's or Schutz's principles for qualitative data, but combine both. While it may be argued both must be acknowledged in an investigation seeking the veridical reality of a construct, the logic of complementing Weber's assumptions of a pre-existing reality as a determining force, with Schutz's assumptions of it lodged firmly within the individual as a personal construct, is questionable.

There is almost a "pick and mix" flavour in the manner in which the competing assumptions are merged. For example, the recording of teachers' everyday language as the first stage of analysis reflects both Weber's and Schutz's principles. However, the researcher's theoretical explanation of the data, by re-ordering these as meanings-in-contrast from which hierarchies of categories are developed, imposes a logical structure that accords with - yet does not match - Weber's assumptions for objectivity.

The categories for instance, are neither predetermined nor discrete as essential, logical distinctions with criteria specified for marginal instances. They emerge from individual meanings to reflect as faithfully as possible, Schutz's principles of shared meanings between teachers and researcher. However, in practice, they are governed by researcher assumptions. The categories of management processes, for instance, may match too

neatly with Halpin & Croft's (1964), dimensions of organisational climate.

Similarly, the validity of constructing individual meanings as a logical structure can be challenged as an artificial, contrived grammar. Raw data are not discrete and dichotomous - some meanings are subtle and indeterminate and do not fit easily as contrasts; even the ordering of statements within a category can convey different rule-meanings. The logical structure too, may be inappropriate for taking account of affective reactions bonded to rule-meanings. The categorisation of individual data for different issues also creates questions of equivalence, for the number of statements or the expressive power of language relating to an issue gives weight to certain meanings. In school "B" for instance, there is meaningful force in teachers' terse statements while the language of school "A" teachers is less succinct and precise, but still consistently expressive. Thus, the formality of the logical structure may be inappropriate for re-ordering the natural qualities of individual data and should be more freely ordered according to Schutz's assumptions. Although meanings are internally consistent throughout the networks, the validity of the categorisation process upon which interpretation depends, can be challenged.

Thus, school differences in teacher issues with the academic and pastoral curriculum, management content and management processes are subjective interpretations. So also, are interpretations of relationships between teachers' issues of management content and definitions of ethos, and those of management processes with organisational climate; researcher subjectivity in data collection and analysis must be taken into account.

It is also possible for other factors to influence interpretation. For example, a new headteacher in school "B" imposing sudden curriculum, pastoral and management changes together with a different management style, could have temporarily "uncoupled" management processes from management content for teachers in this school. Conversely, minimal formal structures in school "A" suggest more overlap may exist between the terms, ethos and organisational climate. The study too, is small involving the data of two Heads and their teachers as "insiders" of two schools; pupils and school "outsiders" such as parents and visitors, may have different understandings.

Thus, it is possible the terms are not as distinct as implied by this interpretation of qualitative data. In a review of school climate research, Anderson (1982), notes ambiguity in operational definitions among "outside" researchers, but still assumes a fundamental congruence of meaning between terms. It is possible headteachers too, assume this synonymity since they are not the recipients, but directors of management processes to achieve school ethos.

The interpretation of ethos and organisational climate as distinct terms is, at this stage still subject to verification by a wider audience. Organisational climate too, needs to be verified as either a personal construct, or as a global, imagined construct shared by teachers.

Thus, it is necessary to establish the extent to which systematic differences exist between teachers' meanings of ethos and organisational climate and between meanings of organisational climate itself so explicating both Weber's and Schutz's "rules of the rules". It would also be useful to gain systematic insights of headteachers' meanings of the terms to determine the degree of congruence between management and teacher perspectives by analysing the responses of a sample of headteachers from a number of secondary schools. The responses of both teachers and headteachers from different schools would address Weber's assumptions: the potential universality of the construct - as a pre-existing, albeit semantic reality, of individual meanings and feelings. Separation of term meanings could be significant for those who challenge the usefulness of the organisational climate construct in organisational research.

If this tentative interpretation of organisational climate as a personal construct distinct from ethos is verified, the intersubjective, role-rule model of climate as a general, relatively enduring construct of subjective meanings operating with organisation-wide force, would need to be adapted. It would be too global. While the model may conceptualise school ethos, it does not fit teachers' data as a model of organisational climate. To teachers, organisational climate would be a personal construct - an individual attribute of how "I" feel and how "I" react to the negotiations of management processes; ethos would be an organisational attribute as the outcome of all school

interactions; it would present the school's educational picture by "nailing the colours of the school's philosophy to the mast". Thus, two models would be required: the organisational climate model would account for the more temporal and specific processes of headteacher-teacher and teacher-teacher interaction, while the model for ethos would reflect more general, wide-ranging and relatively enduring outcome of a number of processes. It is possible that the model for organisational climate is nested within an overall model of school ethos.

The two models would need to re-group the organisational interaction posited in the current model. Academic, pastoral and management interaction could no longer be discrete areas of organisational interaction. Management interaction would consist of management content and management processes. Issues concerning the interaction of management content would include as subsidiary components, academic and pastoral curriculum interaction to identify ethos; issues concerning the specific headteacher-teacher and teacher-teacher interaction of management processes would relate to the model of organisational climate, which in turn might contribute to school ethos.

The next stage of the study seeks to establish this tentative interpretation of different term meanings for organisational climate and ethos, by a systematic investigation in which not only are the respondents of this sample revisited, but also teachers' data from a wider sample of secondary schools and a sample of secondary school headteachers, are quantified. A tripartite investigation can help to provide a reference point for establishing differences. For the same reason the term, school climate, is introduced for the headteachers and teachers in different secondary schools to compare with terms, ethos and organisational climate.

CHAPTER 11

EXTENSION OF THE STUDY BY QUANTITATIVE TECHNIQUES

INTRODUCTION

Qualitative data analyses have given rise to the hypothesis that teachers differentiate between the terms, organisational climate and school ethos. The analyses suggest headteachers' philosophy and policies for the curriculum determine school ethos while their ways of implementing these are perceived by teachers to determine organisational climate.

However, the interpretation of different meanings is tentative. It could be distorted by researcher subjectivity or circumstance, and for validity and reliability it needs the support of other methods. If quantitative methods yield substantially the same results as subjective qualitative analyses, the validity and reliability of the interpretation can be ascertained more confidently. Extending the investigation to a further sample of teachers from different secondary schools can provide even greater confidence.

It is also hypothesised that teachers but not headteachers, differentiate the terms; for headteachers the terms are interchangeable. This would account for the synonymity of terms assumed by traditional climate studies in the field of educational administration which have adopted a management perspective. It is possible too, that different role groups in the school's organisational hierarchy also vary in their degree of differentiation: senior management teachers may be similar to headteachers, while middle management teachers, assistant teachers and probationers may differentiate the terms in different ways according to their different roles and responsibilities for management. Alternatively, teachers may react personally to such experiences despite their status, to support the construct as an individual attribute.

Thirdly, to emphasise teachers' specific meanings of organisational climate, it is hypothesised that meanings of school climate - another everyday term for headteachers and teachers - are more akin to meanings of school ethos than to meanings of

organisational climate.

Thus, the aims of this stage of the study are four-fold:

1. To determine whether teachers' meanings of the terms, ethos and organisational climate are supported by systematic investigation of their data.
2. To determine whether meanings are differentiated by different hierarchical levels of school organisation - senior management, middle management, assistant teachers including those with scale post responsibility, and teachers with less than 2 years' experience.
3. To determine by systematic investigation, whether teachers in other secondary schools differentiate similarly between the terms ethos, organisational climate and also, school climate.
4. To determine by systematic investigation, the degree of congruence between teachers' and headteachers' perspectives of the terms organisational climate, ethos and school climate.

Differences in term meanings between headteacher and teacher perspectives may have implications for school management and also, other organisations. For example, headteachers as directors of control, may need to be more aware of the effect of their management styles upon teachers: besides consensus for school philosophy and policies, a "strong sense" of ethos may require teachers' support for the ways in which policies are implemented. Teachers' meanings of the term, organisational climate could indicate reactions to a management style that support or conflict with aims to establish school ethos.

PROCEDURE

Systematic investigation to support the interpretation of qualitative data was organised as follows:

1. All 37 school "B" teachers completed a card-sort task consisting of statements of term meanings of both terms elicited by interviews to determine the degree of support for differences in term meanings. The task was limited to school "B" teachers because:
(i) the degree of organisational change by the arrival of a new headteacher had highlighted the possibility of a distinction between terms;
(ii) there had been no staff changes in school "B" since the interviews, so all teachers completing the card-sort task would also have been interviewed. In school "A", a 25% staff turn-over in the 18 months between data collection and data interpretation implied methodological problems as these teachers would not have been involved in the interviews;
(iii) 37 school "B" teachers provided more opportunity for systematic investigation than 23 school "A" teachers.

2. 18 INSET teachers from secondary schools in West Sussex and S.E. Hampshire completed a questionnaire with statements identical to those of the card-sort task, to determine the extent to which teachers in other secondary schools also supported differences in term meanings.

3. 37 headteachers from secondary schools in Hertfordshire completed the same questionnaire to determine the degree of congruence between headteachers' and teachers' meanings of the terms.

1. SCHOOL "B"

Sample

All 37 full-time teachers (3 male and 34 female) and the headteacher completed the card-sort task. Of these, 4 teachers were at senior management level; 16 teachers were at middle management level - as either Head of VI Form, Head of Department, or Head of

Year; 11 teachers were assistant teachers, some of whom had scale posts of responsibility; and 6 teachers were either probationers or had less than 2 years' teaching experience.

Method

Because of the rapport already established by interview, quantifying data by questionnaire was considered too impersonal. A card-sort task would not only maintain rapport, but could also afford further insights and clarify possible ambiguous statements so minimising invalid judgements. Furthermore, responses could be more easily recorded by role status for later analysis.

A comprehensive list of 39 statements representing teachers' meanings of the terms, ethos and organisational climate, was selected from the interview data of both schools. Criteria for selection were clarity of expression, representation of positive and negative responses in content analysis categories and any school-specific statements. Ethos and organisational climate statements were placed in random order in the card deck. As teachers had varied in the extent to which they were able to differentiate the terms, some overlap was expected with some statements confirmed as weak discriminators. Conversely, other statements could be confirmed as good discriminators. There were 22 ethos and 17 organisational climate statements to reflect the range and proportion of statements elicited, (Table 11.1, facing page 234).

Two decks of identical statements were compiled and numbered 1 to 39. One deck was entitled "ethos" and the other, "organisational climate". Each deck contained 3 separate cards of "strongly represents", "moderately represents" and "not appropriate" which would be laid separately on the table as categories for placing the statements for each term.

The task was explained to each teacher. Each teacher was told different understandings of the terms had been supplied by teachers in the interviews and further investigation was necessary to determine the extent to which such comments were shared by all teachers in that school. Teachers would recognise some comments as their own but

others would be unfamiliar. They were asked to consider all statements as equally important.

Each teacher was to allocate each statement card to one of the three categories: "strongly represents", "moderately represents" or "not appropriate" first for school ethos then followed by the same procedure for organisational climate. Each term was presented in the same order for each teacher.

Teachers were advised to categorise the cards by their first impression and to work as quickly as possible through the deck. For most teachers however, this proved to be too difficult because the statements were thought-provoking. Some teachers laid out groups of cards on the table for comparison before allocating them to their categories; others checked previous placements to maintain self-consistency; still others re-assigned their cards to other piles during the procedure; few teachers were able to work quickly through the decks without hesitation. Some teachers queried an ambiguous statement, which was explained in the context of the interview response and noted for the later presentation of the questionnaire to INSET teachers and headteachers. For example, both "concern for standards of discipline" and "concern for individuality/ conformity" could have involved different categorisations according to interpretations of "discipline" and "conformity".

The challenging nature of the task appealed to many teachers. They were also surprised by the range of different statements which extended their own meanings. The technique too, provided the opportunity for further interaction, not only for questions of procedure but as a commentary of thought. To one teacher, for example, the technique suggested its application in careers teaching with pupils.

Scoring

For each teacher, scoring sheets were constructed with two columns numbered 1-39, one for school ethos and one for organisational climate. Each column was subdivided by the three categories, "strongly represents" (SR); "moderately represents" (MR); and "not appropriate",(NA). As each teacher completed the task, category responses for

each card deck were recorded item by item on the scoring sheet, together with the teacher's name and role status, (Appendix 3).

2. INSET TEACHERS

Sample

A questionnaire was completed by 18 secondary school teachers from different schools in West Sussex and S.E. Hampshire, who were attending an In-Service B.Ed. degree course at an Institute of Higher Education and whose co-operation was invited prior to one of their sessions. Thus, all teachers had current experience of secondary schools and were in full-time employment. By chance, they were of different ages and held school roles of different status but these factors were not controlled. The general nature of the degree course was unlikely to be a source of bias beyond attracting teachers who were interested in teaching as a career.

Method

In this context, questionnaires were considered to be more appropriate techniques of data collection. Also, it was not so crucial to establish rapport for the data would not be based upon their own interview data. Teachers were also to categorise statements according to their meanings of school climate besides ethos and organisational climate which would have been too time consuming as a card-sort task.

Thus, the questionnaire contained three sets of the same 39 statements with the same scoring columns for the 3 response categories (strongly represents; moderately represents; not appropriate), as the card decks. Each set of 39 statements was labelled "school climate", "ethos" and "organisational climate" respectively. The sets were combined into a booklet, with instructions for completing the task on the title page (Appendix 4).

The purpose of the task was explained. Teachers were told the questionnaire was part of a study into the meaning of a research term in the field of educational administration, known as "organisational climate". Such studies had linked this term with those of "school ethos" or "school climate". This study was specifically interested in the

meanings given by secondary school teachers to each term. The questionnaire statements were term meanings already provided by teachers in one secondary school. It was necessary to determine the extent to which teachers in other secondary schools agreed with these meanings which could be school-specific or common to teachers in all secondary schools.

Thus, they were to consider how they might use the terms ethos, organisational climate and school climate in their own school. Would they use them synonymously, or did the terms have different meanings? They were warned the questionnaire statements might require some consideration as they applied to the practice of another secondary school. All the statements however, had been significant to teachers in that school. The format of the questionnaire was explained according to the instructions on the title page. Statements found to be ambiguous by school "B" teachers during the card sorts task were also explained and further clarification could be provided as necessary.

The questionnaire was completed in approximately 20 minutes. No further questions were asked. Although teachers showed interest, the task appeared not to generate the same degree of involvement as the card-sort task.

Scoring

Scoring sheets were developed as for the card-sort task, but with three columns to include the term, school climate, (Appendix 5).

3. HEADTEACHERS

Sample

40 secondary school headteachers as members of "Hertfordshire Association of Secondary Headteachers", were invited to take part in the study, prior to the afternoon session of one of their termly meetings. The headteacher of school "B" was present at this meeting, but was not included in this sample.

Method

Arrangements had been negotiated prior to the meeting for permission to address this

assembly and invite the co-operation of the headteachers present. The same procedure was followed as for INSET teachers. Headteachers were also told the study to date had only involved two headteachers among its samples of teachers. Headteachers' responses would redress the balance and also relate to earlier studies in the field of educational administration.

The same questionnaire, but with an appropriate title page, (Appendix 6), was again completed in approximately 20 minutes by headteachers. Items 7, 8, 18, 20, and 26, were questioned for their ambiguity. Interest was expressed towards the purpose of the task. Five headteachers were unable to differentiate the terms - "not prepared to/ do not/ cannot distinguish between the headings". These headteachers handed in questionnaires with only the "ethos" set of statements completed, with written comments to say they were unable to differentiate: they would use the terms synonymously. It would have been of interest to know the identity of these responses for further analysis, but this was not possible in the group context. One headteacher suggested completion of the questionnaires in their own time would have provided more opportunity to consider the statements. However, this procedure would have been off-set by the possibility of a lower response return to influence interpretation when comparing headteachers' and teachers' responses. There were general requests to be kept informed of the results but three headteachers chose not to complete their questionnaires.

Scoring

The same scoring sheets as for the INSET teachers were used for recording headteachers' data (Appendix 5).

Analysis

Category responses for school "B" teachers, INSET teachers and headteachers were analysed (i) by item and (ii) by teacher, as both are high/low discriminators of term meanings.

1. Item analysis

Strongly represent (SR) and not appropriate (NA) category frequencies were totalled

for:

37 school "B" teachers, school "B" role groups, 18 INSET teachers and 37 headteachers respectively for:

(i) 17 organisational climate items

(ii) 22 ethos items

addressed to each term.

SR and NA frequencies were selected to ensure clear separation of meanings, (Appendices 7 & 8).

For INSET teachers and headteachers, SR and NA category frequencies were also totalled for each set of items addressed to the term, school climate, (Appendix 8).

To maximise differences between term meanings, twin profiles were plotted for school "B" teachers, with items ranked by "strongly represent" (SR) frequencies and corresponding NA frequencies. By the same ranking, twin profiles were also plotted for school "B" role groups, INSET teachers and headteachers, with each set of items addressed to the terms:

(i) organisational climate

(ii) ethos

(iii) school climate, (INSET teachers and headteachers only).

To differentiate term meanings, items need to be good indicators with high SR frequencies for their own term and also good discriminators by low SR frequencies for the alternative term.

2. Subject analysis

To consider school "B" teachers as high/low separators of E?OC term meanings, category responses for items addressed to each term were coded:

strongly represents = 3

moderately represents = 2

not appropriate = 1

and compared, item by item, as "same" (1:1; 2:2; 3:3), or "SR-Change" (1:3; 3:1), to

determine the extent to which item meanings were considered similar or different, (Appendix 9).

"Same" and "SR-Change E/OC paired frequency scores for school "B" teachers were then totalled, ranked and profiled by "same" and corresponding "SR-Change score frequencies for high/low discriminators of term meanings. High "SR-Change scores and low "same " scores indicate differentiation of term meanings, (Appendix 12a).

For INSET teachers and headteachers each item was recorded as a trio of E/SC/OC scores, (Appendices 10 & 11). Frequencies of "same" and "SR-Change scores were totalled, ranked and profiled as for school "B" teachers for the following paired terms
(i) ethos and organisational climate, [E/OC], (Appendices 12b & 12c);
(ii) ethos and school climate, [E/SC], (Appendices 13a & 13b);
(iii) organisational climate and school climate, [OC/SC], (Appendices 13a & 13b).

2.1. Histograms were constructed to compare the percentages of "same" and "SR-Change" paired E/OC scores for school "B" teachers and their role groups, INSET teachers and headteachers for:
(i) 17 organisational climate items, (Figure 11.4a);
(ii) 22 ethos items, (Figure 11.4b).

2.2. To consider the statistical significance of "same" and "SR-Change paired E/OC score frequencies, the sign test, (two-tailed,p=0.05), was applied to frequencies of "same" and "SR-Change paired scores for organisational climate and ethos items respectively, (Appendices 14 & 15).

2.3. For INSET teachers and headteachers, Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between:
(i) ethos and school climate, {E/SC];
(ii) organisational climate and school climate, [OC/SC], (Appendices 16a & 16b).

TABLE 11.1

TEACHERS' ETHOS AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE STATEMENTS

(E) 1. The nature of teacher-pupil relationships;
(OC) 2. The headteacher's style of leadership;
(E) 3. State of the physical environment;
(E) 4. Level and type of noise generated;
(OC) 5. Degree of organisational structure imposed by management, the "who does what and how" in the system;
(E) 6. Concern for standards of discipline;
(OC) 7. My experience of the organisation upon my own perceptions and feelings;
(E) 8. Concern for acceptable codes of behaviour to others;
(E) 9. The school community or culture;
(E) 10. Concern for appropriate dress/uniform;
(OC) 11. Effectiveness of day-to-day administration;
(E) 12. Concern for achievement/examination success;
(OC) 13. Teachers knowing "where they are "in the system and their feelings towards it;
(E) 14. Traditional/progressive approaches;
(E) 15. Degree of academic emphasis;
OC) 16. Ways members influence others to achieve goals;
(E) 17. School reputation/tradition;
(OC) 18. The deep-down inside, below the surface processes;
(E) 19. Single sex/mixed sex;
(OC) 20. Effect of status, power/influence upon teachers;
(E) 21. Elitist/egalitarian values operating in the school;
(OC) 22. Ways in which management functions for teachers;
(OC) 23. Inter-relationships between management and teachers;
(E) 24. Concern for maximising interests and opportunities for all ages of ability;
(OC) 25. General feeling about the ways in which the school is managed;
(E) 26. On-the-surface, school image qualities, for everyone to see;
(E) 27. Degree of teacher commitment;
(E) 28. Degree of commitment to work by pupils;
(E) 29. Concern for individuality/conformity;
(E) 30. School atmosphere;
(E) 31. Quality of teaching throughout the school;
(E) 32. Level of parental control;
(OC) 33. Atmosphere generated by senior management processes for teachers;
(OC) 34. Nature of communication allowed by the role structure of the organisation;
(OC) 35. The quality of teacher-teacher relationships;
(OC) 36. Ways decisions are made in the school - the kinds of discussion allowed;
(E) 37. The tone of the school;
(OC) 38. Balance between autonomy and control;
(OC) 39. A collective attitude towards the school;

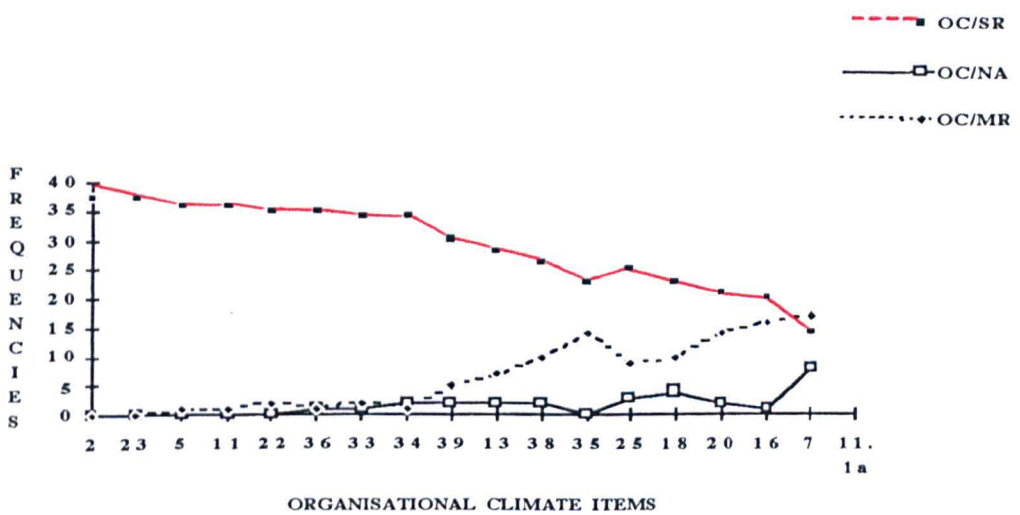
Item and subject analyses of school "B" teachers' card-sort data can be used to consider:
(1) whether differences in teachers' qualitative data are upheld by systematic investigation and
(2) whether meanings are differentiated by different hierarchical levels of school organisation.
Similar analyses of INSET teachers' and headteachers' questionnaires can be used to consider
(3) whether teachers in other secondary schools differentiate between terms and
(4) the degree of congruence between headteachers' and teachers' perspectives of the terms.

1. Quantitative analysis of school "B" qualitative data.

1.a. Item analysis

[i] Organisational climate items

FIGURE 11.1a n=37 SCHOOL B TEACHERS
Items ranked by "strongly represents" [SR] with "moderately represents" [MR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of organisational climate [OC]



Twin profiles of SR and NA frequencies for organisational climate items addressed to

"organisational climate" show most items are good indicators of this term; there is clear separation with many statements categorised as "strongly represent" and few considered as inappropriate, (Fig.11.1a). Maximum frequencies of SR responses and nil NA frequencies would present items as strong indicators of the term; the more SR and NA responses converge, the less is the confidence in such items as indicators. Thus, items 2, 5, 11, 22, and 23, are strong indicators with high SR frequencies and nil NA responses. They refer to headteacher management style, (Table 11.1). Other strong indicators - items 33, 34 are 36, are also concerned with management processes. Items 16, 18, 20 and 25 although weaker indicators by lower SR and higher NA frequencies, are similarly concerned with influence upon teachers' autonomy. Item 7 creates confusion; maybe the statement is too long and complex. Thus, it seems strong indicators of organisational climate are those items concerned with the effect of perceived management control upon teachers.

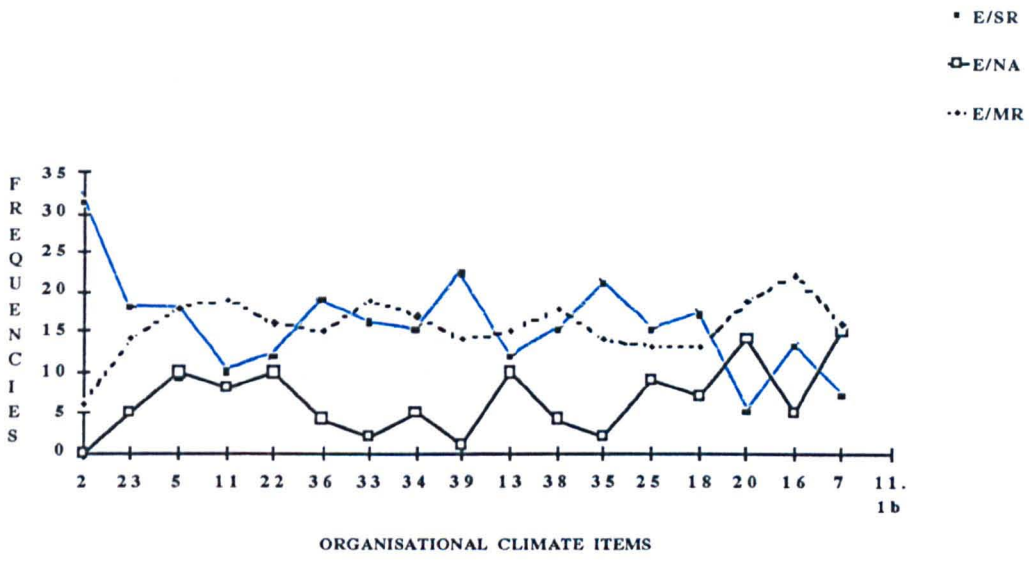
To present a complete picture of the data in this instance it can be seen that, for most items, few teachers consider they only moderately represent the term: most teachers consider items as strong representations while their profile of "moderately represents" [MR] responses is more comparable with "not appropriate" [NA] responses. However, although frequencies are still comparatively low, steadily increasing responses to the lower ranked [SR] items of this profile indicate more support for the term than among teachers who consider the items as inappropriate.

In contrast, frequencies for organisational climate items addressed as "ethos" do not show the same clear pattern of separation, (Figure 11.1b). Both SR and NA profiles lie irregularly within the twin profile for items categorised as "organisational climate" with more NA frequencies to show more teachers consider such items are not appropriate as meanings of ethos. Items 7 and 20, with higher NA than SR frequencies, suggest these items are more appropriate as meanings of organisational climate.

In this figure, however, the E/MR profile, supports the E/SR profile and, as both SR and MR profiles are generally higher than NA frequencies it suggests most items are

also considered as ethos meanings.

FIGURE 11.1b. n=37 SCHOOL B TEACHERS
Items ranked by frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR], with corresponding "moderately represents" [MR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of ethos [E]



Item 2, (headteacher's style of leadership), item 35, (teacher-teacher relationships), and item 39, (collective attitude towards school), are strong indicators of both terms and, therefore, weak discriminators of term meanings. Thus, organisational climate items seem strong as indicators but not as discriminators of term meanings. The higher frequencies when addressed to organisational climate, however, indicate these items have some content validity for differentiating term meanings.

[ii] Ethos items

Twin profiles of frequencies for ethos items addressed as "ethos" are also clearly separated to indicate items are good indicators of this term, (Fig.11.2a). However, with fewer SR and more NA frequencies there is less separation than for organisational climate statements addressed to organisational climate, (Figure 11.1a), which may reflect ambiguity associated with the term. Items 1, 6, 8, 24, 27, 30 and 31 are strong indicators of ethos by high SR and low NA frequencies, (Figure 11.2a). These items are concerned with teacher-pupil relationships, (Table 11.1). Teachers, therefore, seem

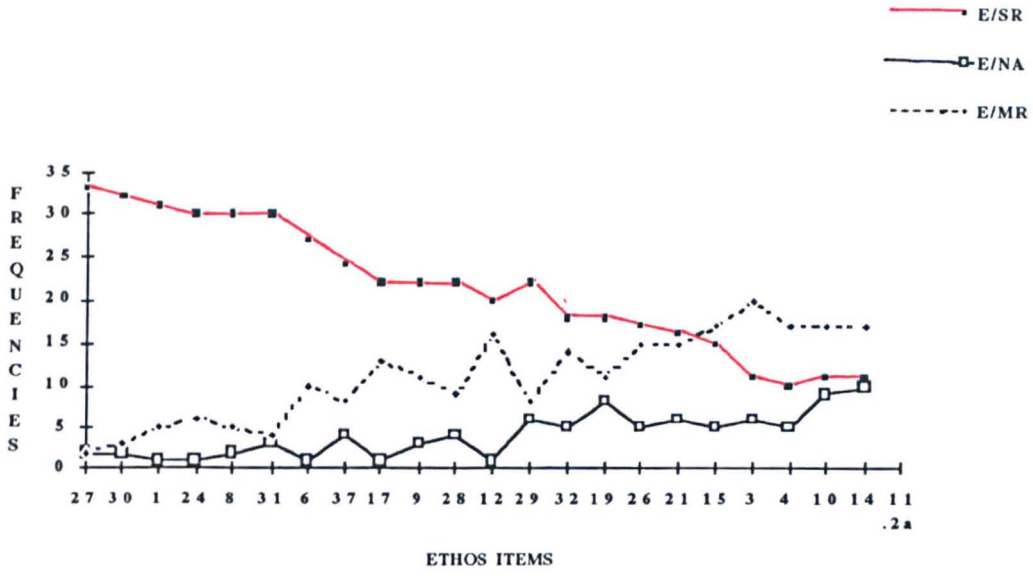
TABLE 11.1

TEACHERS' ETHOS AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE STATEMENTS

(E) 1. The nature of teacher-pupil relationships;
(OC) 2. The headteacher's style of leadership;
(E) 3. State of the physical environment;
(E) 4. Level and type of noise generated;
(OC) 5. Degree of organisational structure imposed by management, the "who does what and how" in the system;
(E) 6. Concern for standards of discipline;
(OC) 7. My experience of the organisation upon my own perceptions and feelings;
(E) 8. Concern for acceptable codes of behaviour to others;
(E) 9. The school community or culture;
(E) 10. Concern for appropriate dress/uniform;
(OC) 11. Effectiveness of day-to-day administration;
(E) 12. Concern for achievement/examination success;
(OC) 13. Teachers knowing "where they are "in the system and their feelings towards it;
(E) 14. Traditional/progressive approaches;
(E) 15. Degree of academic emphasis;
OC) 16. Ways members influence others to achieve goals;
(E) 17. School reputation/tradition;
(OC) 18. The deep-down inside, below the surface processes;
(E) 19. Single sex/mixed sex;
(OC) 20. Effect of status, power/influence upon teachers;
(E) 21. Elitist/egalitarian values operating in the school;
(OC) 22. Ways in which management functions for teachers;
(OC) 23. Inter-relationships between management and teachers;
(E) 24. Concern for maximising interests and opportunities for all ages of ability;
(OC) 25. General feeling about the ways in which the school is managed;
(E) 26. On-the-surface, school image qualities, for everyone to see;
(E) 27. Degree of teacher commitment;
(E) 28. Degree of commitment to work by pupils;
(E) 29. Concern for individuality/conformity;
(E) 30. School atmosphere;
(E) 31. Quality of teaching throughout the school;
(E) 32. Level of parental control;
(OC) 33. Atmosphere generated by senior management processes for teachers;
(OC) 34. Nature of communication allowed by the role structure of the organisation;
(OC) 35. The quality of teacher-teacher relationships;
(OC) 36. Ways decisions are made in the school - the kinds of discussion allowed;
(E) 37. The tone of the school;
(OC) 38. Balance between autonomy and control;
(OC) 39. A collective attitude towards the school;

to consider teacher-pupil relationships are strong indicators of school ethos. Items 9, 12, 17, 28 and 37 are also strong indicators with high SR frequencies but more NA frequencies. These items are more concerned with the general tone of the school, (Table 11.1).

FIGURE 11.2a. n=37 SCHOOL B TEACHERS
Ethos items ranked by "strongly represents" [SR] with "moderately represents" [MR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of ethos [E]

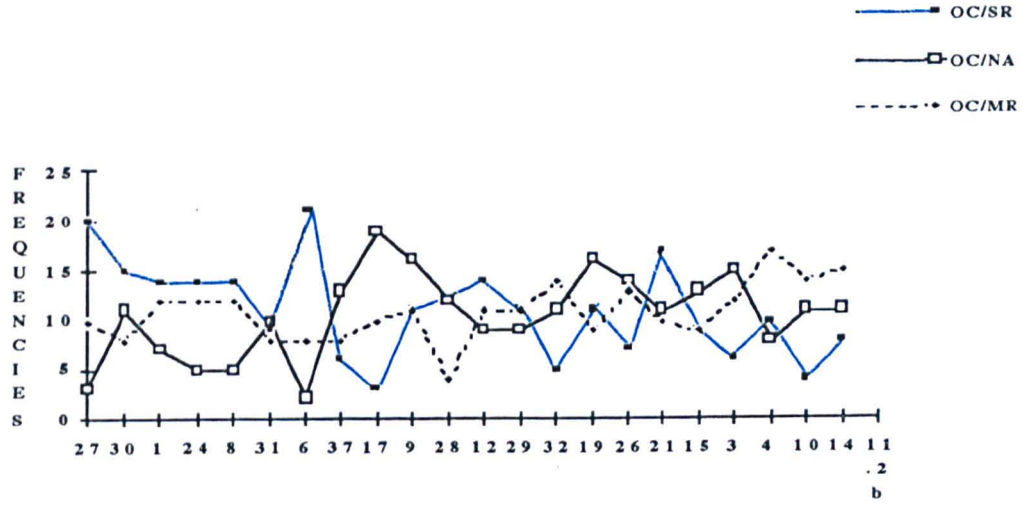


Items 19, 21, 26, 29, and 32 are weaker indicators with less SR and more NA responses - possibly due to ambiguity, (Table 11.1). Items 3 and 4, (physical environment of the school), item 15 (degree of academic emphasis), item 10 (school uniform) and item 14 (traditional / progressive approaches) with low SR and high NA frequencies are weak indicators. These items may be irrelevant or may also be ambiguous.

As with organisational climate items addressed to organisational climate, teachers' "moderately represent" [MR] responses for ethos items addressed to ethos are, similarly, more comparable with NA responses towards the term. However, frequencies increase more rapidly than NA responses as the rank of E/SR responses decreases and with lower ranked items these responses become paramount, the convergence of all profiles suggesting the generality of these items.

By comparison, twin profiles for ethos items addressed as "organisational climate" appear confused, but closer analysis suggests meanings of ethos may be emphasised, (Figure 11.2b). Items 1, 8, 24, 30 and 31 (teacher-pupil relationships) as strong indicators of "ethos" are weaker when addressed to "organisational climate" indicating these items are also strong discriminators. Item 6 (standards of discipline) and item 27 (teacher commitment), with high SR and low NA frequencies for both terms are good indicators but weak discriminators. However, nearly 50% of items - particularly the weaker indicators - have NA frequencies exceeding SR frequencies to indicate their relevance as meanings of ethos, (Figure 11.2b). Items 3, 4, 10, 14 and 15 are weak indicators and discriminators, (Figures 11.2a & 11.2b). Such statements could be too brief, too complex, have double meanings, or could be irrelevant as meanings of ethos. Most ethos items, however, appear to have some content validity as meanings of ethos. MR responses appear to steer a steady course in evenly dividing SR and NA responses (except for the items of lowest [SR] rank) to indicate the variance among school "B" staff.

FIGURE 11.2b. n=37 SCHOOL B TEACHERS
Ethos items ranked by "strongly represents" [SR], "moderately represents"[MR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of organisational climate [OC].

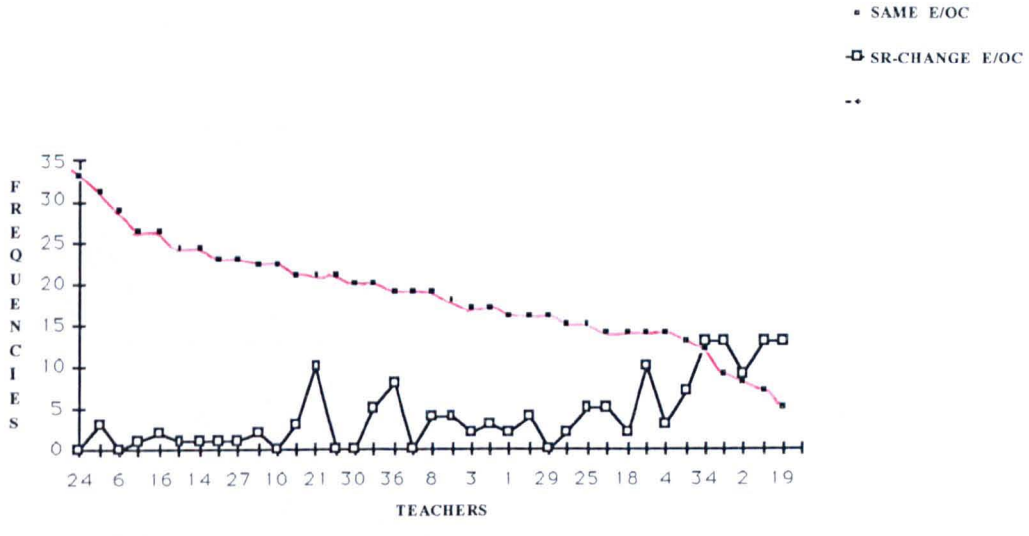


Thus, differences in term meanings by school "B" teachers' interview data appear to be sustained by systematic investigation although profiles indicate more overlap of meanings than is suggested by the qualitative data; items are not equally strong

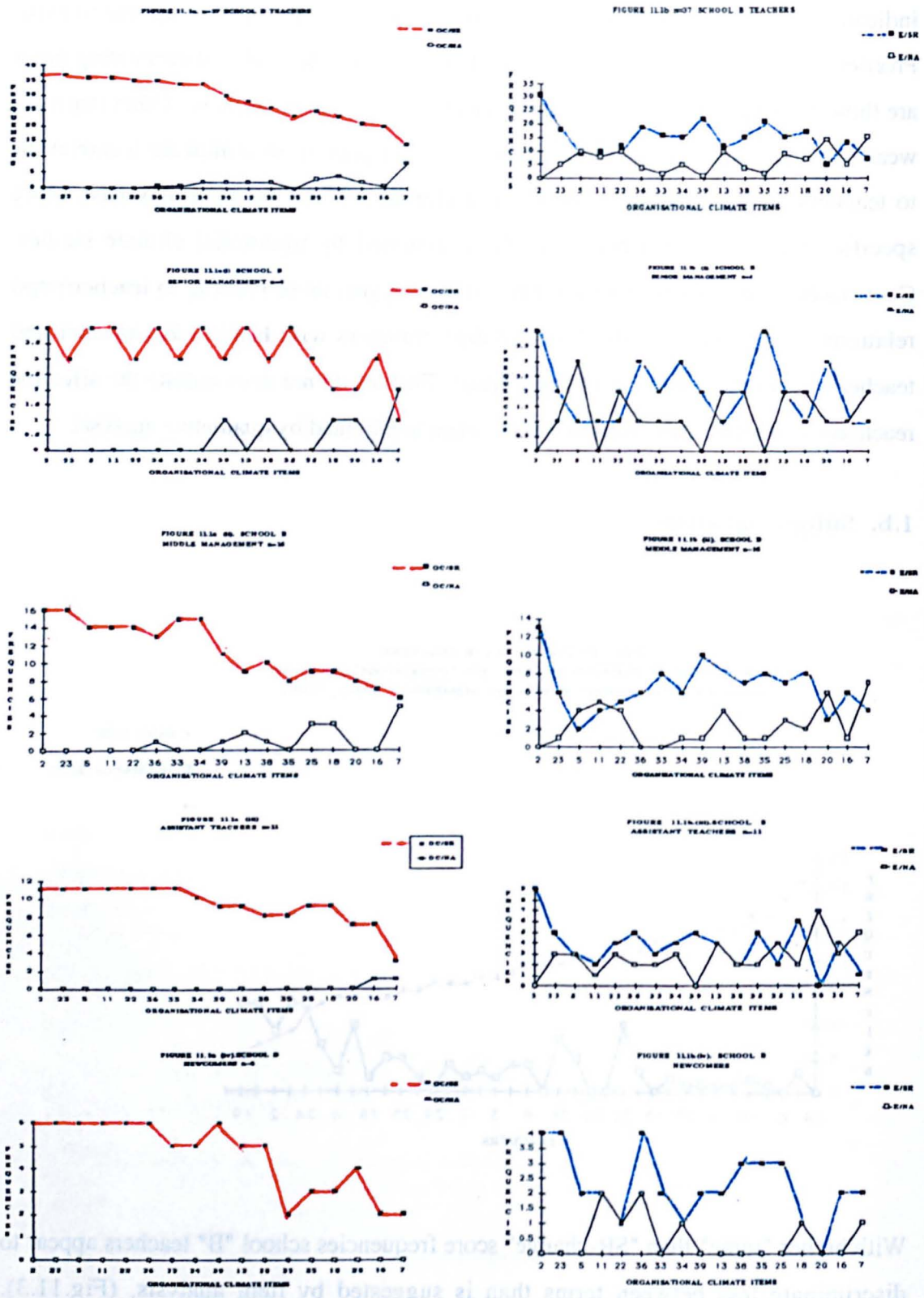
indicators and discriminators and relationships as well as differences appear to exist. Profiles for organisational climate items suggest the most strongly differentiating items are those relating to the effect of management processes upon teachers. Other items are weaker as indicators and/or discriminators. Teacher-pupil relationships are less relevant to teachers as meanings of organisational climate. Thus, the term may have more specific meanings to teachers than those assumed by traditional climate studies. Conversely, frequency profiles for ethos items suggest those relating to teacher/pupil relationships are strong indicators and discriminators with headteacher/teacher and teacher/teacher relationships less significant. Profiles do not demonstrate the affective reactions associated with organisational climate highlighted by qualitative analysis.

1.b. Subject analysis

FIGURE 11.3 n=37 SCHOOL B TEACHERS
Teachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change] paired scores for meanings of ethos and organisational climate [E/OC]



With higher "same" than "SR-change" score frequencies school "B" teachers appear to discriminate less between terms than is suggested by item analysis, (Fig.11.3). However, they do not consider the terms are synonymous: frequencies of "same" and "SR-change" scores decrease and increase irregularly to suggest individual differences among teachers as high/low separators of term meanings. Five teachers with higher



Organisational climate items ranked by frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of (a) organisational climate and (b) ethos.

"SR-change" than "same" score frequencies appear relatively high separators, (Fig. 11.3).

Histograms for each set of items, (Figs. 11.4a & 11.4b, p.243), indicate the terms are synonymous for 45% of paired score frequencies for each set of items for school "B" teachers. Paired score frequencies for 17 organisational climate items show "SR-change" is just significant with p=0.05 at p=0.05 level and those for 22 ethos items are even more significant with p=0.016 at p=0.05 level, (Appendix 14).

Thus, both item and subject analyses for school "B" teachers appear to support the differences in term meanings suggested by the qualitative data. Item analysis profiles suggest the sets of items have some content validity for distinguishing between organisational climate and ethos meanings, while subject analysis profiles suggest individual differences among teachers who differentiate the terms.

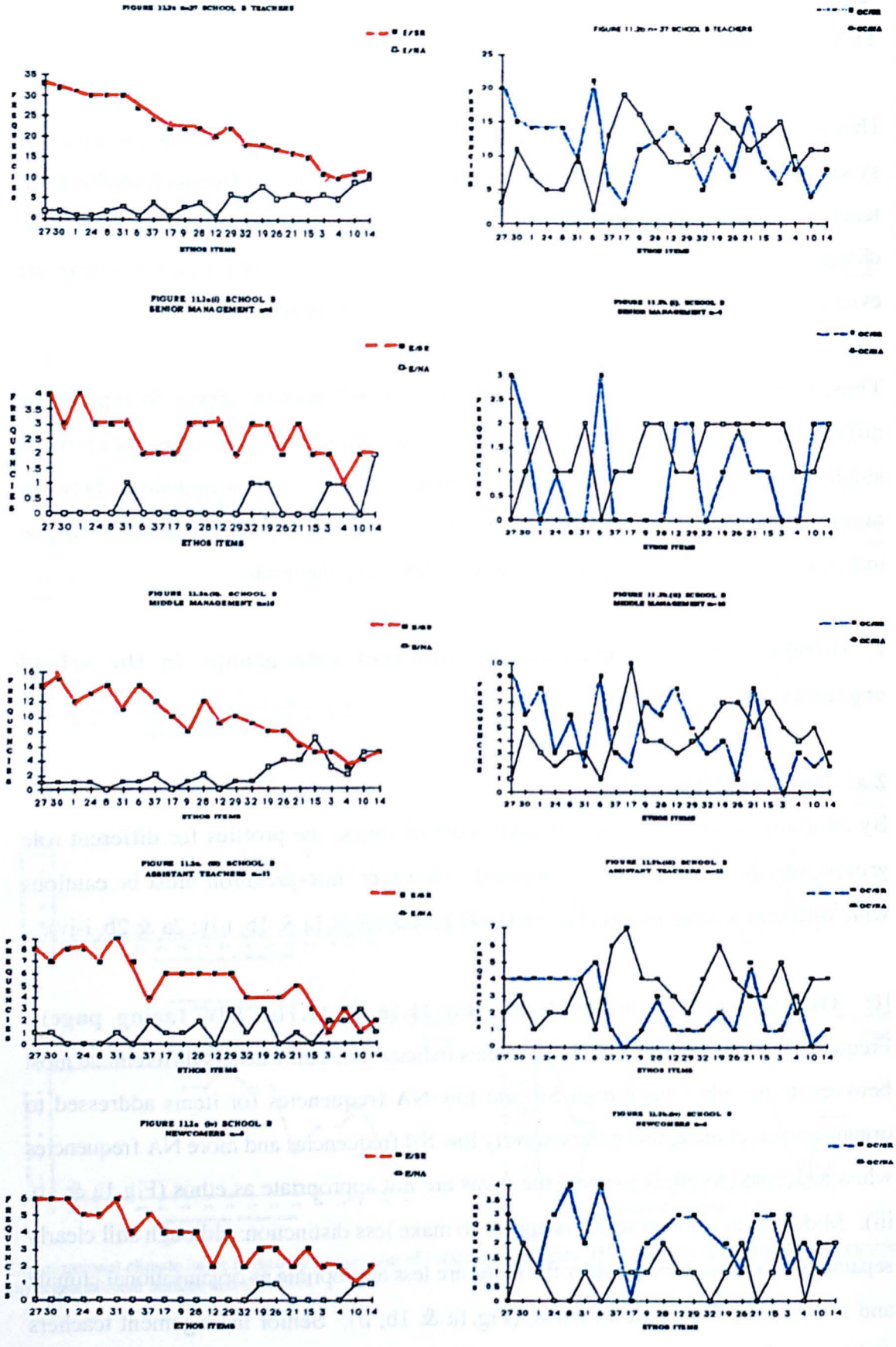
2. Differentiation of meanings by different role groups in the school organisational hierarchy

2.a. Item analysis

By adopting school "B" teachers rank order of items, the profiles for different role groups may be systematically compared. However, interpretation must be cautious with different teacher numbers in each role group, (Figs.1a & 1b, i-iv; 2a & 2b, i-iv).

[i] Organisational climate items, (Fig.11.1a & 11.1b, i-iv, facing page)

Frequencies for organisational climate items indicate assistant teachers differentiate most between terms: they have high SR and low NA frequencies for items addressed to organisational climate, and comparatively low SR frequencies and more NA frequencies when addressed to ethos to show the items are not appropriate as ethos (Fig.1a & 1b, iii). Middle management teachers appear to make less distinction: although still clearly separated, more teachers consider the items are less appropriate as organisational climate and most items also relate to ethos, (Fig.1a & 1b, ii). Senior management teachers make very little distinction between terms: items have high SR frequencies when



Ethos items ranked by frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of (a) ethos and (b) organisational climate.

categorised as either term. However, they consider some items are not appropriate as ethos which emphasises their relevance as meanings of organisational climate, (Fig.1a & 1b, i). Newcomers, have higher SR and lower NA frequencies for items addressed to both terms to indicate the similarity of term meanings, (Fig.1a & 1b, iv). The headteacher perceives no differences with all items categorised as strong indicators of both terms, (Appendix 17).

Thus, for organisational climate items, term meanings appear to be differentiated according to the status in the organisational hierarchy of different role groups. Except for newcomers, who may be unfamiliar with organisational processes, the perceived similarity between terms increases with status.

[ii] Ethos items, (Figures 11.2a & 11.2b, i-iv, facing page)

As for school "B" teachers, each role group appears to have lower SR frequencies when ethos items are categorised as ethos, but more which are inappropriate when categorised as organisational climate, so emphasising them as ethos meanings.

Senior management teachers appear to make most distinctions between term meanings, (Fig.11.2a & 11.2b, i.). When categorised as ethos, there is clear separation between SR and NA responses to indicate their relevance - although some items are also perceived as not appropriate. Six ethos items are also strong indicators of organisational climate but most are not appropriate, to suggest ethos items represent only ethos meanings - or they are irrelevant.

Middle management teachers, (Fig.11.2a & 11.2b, ii.), and assistant teachers, (Fig.11.2a & 11.2b, iii.), are in the direction of distinguishing between terms but consider them more similar; middle management teachers separate SR and NA frequencies for items categorised as ethos to show they are ethos meanings, but there is confusion about whether they are also indicators of organisational climate - teachers seem divided about whether the terms are similar or different by these items; assistant teachers appear to separate less between SR and NA frequencies of items for ethos meanings but appear more certain such items are not meanings of organisational climate.

As with organisational climate items, newcomers make little distinction: there is clear separation of SR and NA frequencies for items addressed to ethos and there are relatively high SR frequencies for items addressed to organisational climate despite some which are considered inappropriate as this term, (Fig.11.2a & 11.2b, iv.). The headteacher too, makes little distinction between terms with 17/22 items strongly representing both terms. Item 21, (elitist/egalitarian values) is ethos only, and three items are organisational climate meanings only: item 9 (school community or culture), item 15 (degree of academic emphasis), and item 32 (level of parental control); item 14, (traditional/progressive approaches), is a weak meaning of either term, (Appendix 17).

Thus, for each role group, ethos items addressed to ethos have fewer high SR frequencies and more NA frequencies than do organisational climate items addressed to their own term. Unlike organisational climate items too, ethos items are not so relevant as meanings of the alternative term, for with all role groups except newcomers and headteacher, ethos items are not appropriate categorised as organisational climate. For newcomers and the headteacher both sets of items appear to relate to both terms. The synonymity for headteacher frequencies may be idiosyncratic or headteachers in general might not differentiate between terms, to suggest differences between management and teachers. Similar overlap in term meanings among newcomers may be explained by inexperience of management processes.

Ethos items appear to have most content validity for senior management teachers. While there is overlap of the meanings with organisational climate items, ethos items relate more to ethos meanings. Ethos meanings, perhaps, are more wide-ranging with organisational climate meanings nested within them. Frequencies for middle management teachers lie in the same direction as senior management teachers - i.e., overlap on organisational climate items but ethos items emphasising ethos meanings - but the differences are less clear; assistant teachers emphasise ethos items more strongly by refuting them as meanings of organisational climate and also distinguish the terms clearly by organisational climate items. For assistant teachers, therefore, both sets of items appear to have content validity .

Histograms of "same" and "SR-change" scores for each role group support this interpretation, (Figs. 11.4a & 11.4b, page 243). For organisational climate items, the terms are synonymous for 54% of paired score frequencies for senior management teachers, 47% for middle management teachers, 46% for newcomers and 38.5% for assistant teachers. None is statistically significant at p=0.05 level by the sign test, (Appendix 14). For ethos items, however, only 30.7% of paired score frequencies are considered synonymous by senior management teachers, with 45.75% for middle management teachers, 47.1% for assistant teachers and 49.25% for newcomers, (Appendix 14). For senior management teachers, the direction of "SR-change" is significant with 0.004 at p=0.05 level by the sign test, (Appendix 14);

FIGURE 11.4a
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE ITEMS

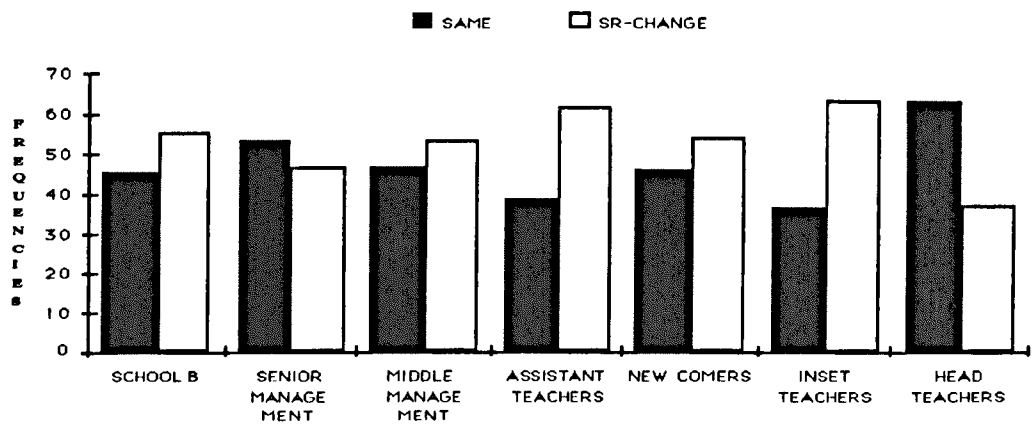
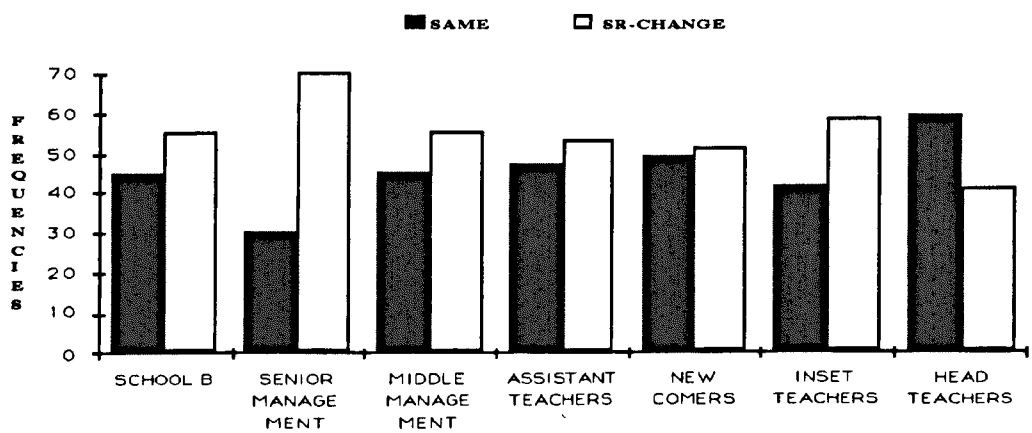


FIGURE 11.4b
ETHOS ITEMS



The results suggest that, except for newcomers, as role status increases so does the perceived similarity of terms. Meanings of organisational climate seem to become nested within meanings of ethos as management responsibility increases. For role groups such as assistant teachers and, possibly, middle management teachers, who experience management processes, differences in term meanings are more significant.

3. Differentiation between meanings of organisational climate, ethos and school climate by teachers in other secondary schools

As with school "B" role groups, the rank order of items for n=37 school "B" teachers is adopted for 18 INSET teachers to enable systematic comparison.

3.a. Item analysis

(i) Organisational climate items

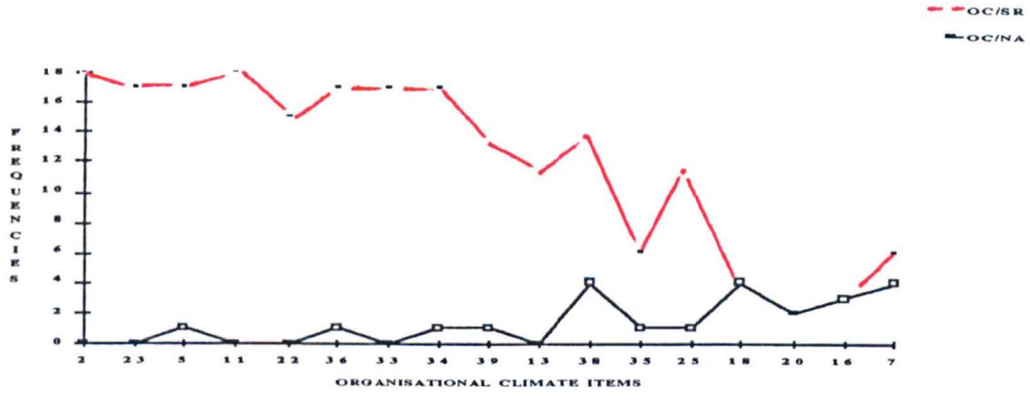


Figure 11.5a, n=18 INSET teachers
Items ranked by school "B" teachers' frequencies of "strongly represents"[SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of organisational climate [OC]

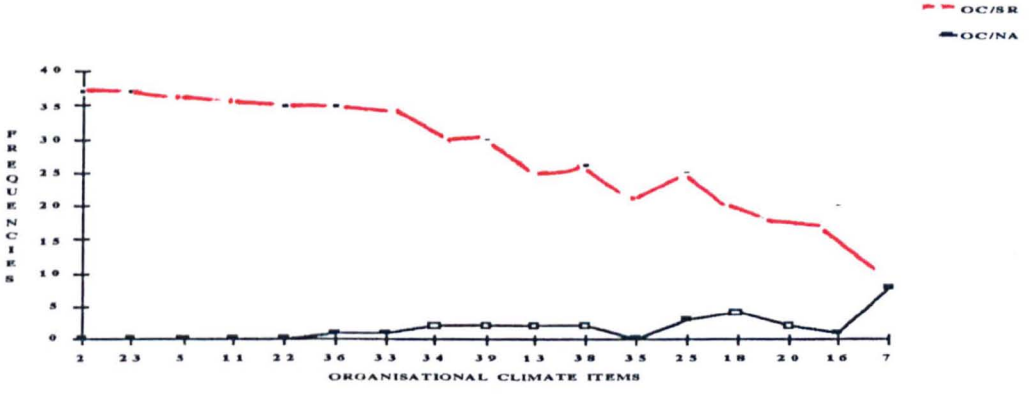


Figure 11.1a, n=37 SCHOOL "B" teachers
Items ranked by frequencies of "strongly represents"[SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of organisational climate [OC]

For organisational climate items categorised as meanings of organisational climate, the rank order of frequencies for INSET teachers, (Figure 11.5a), is similar to that of school "B" teachers, (Figure 11.1a). However, fewer items are good indicators with

less separation of SR and NA frequencies. More low-ranked items also appear inappropriate. Items ranked highly by school "B" teachers - those reflecting teachers' reactions to headteacher style in management processes - are also ranked highly by INSET teachers as good indicators of organisational climate. They also perceive the same items as weaker indicators, (Figure 11.1a).

Organisational climate items categorised as ethos are also similar to school "B" teachers. Items which are strong indicators of organisational climate are relevant as ethos and are, therefore, weak discriminators. Thus, INSET teachers appear to perceive similar relationships to school "B" teachers by these items. The similarities suggest school "B" teachers' meanings of organisational climate may be sustained across schools, (Figure 11.5b & 11.1b).

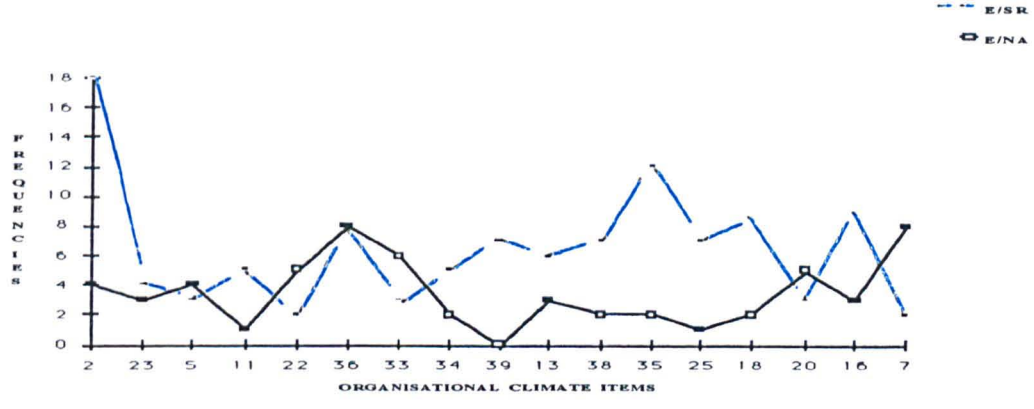


Figure 11.5b n=18 INSET teachers
Items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR]] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of organisational climate [OC] and categorised as ethos [E]

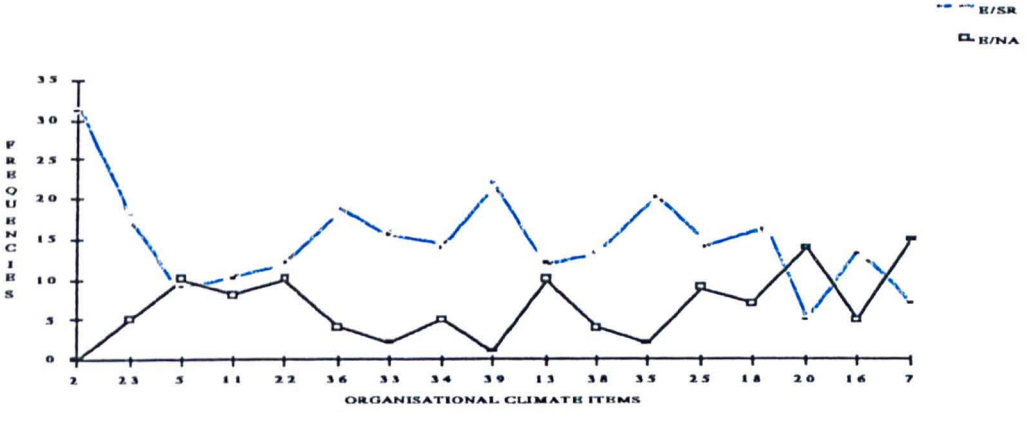


Figure 11.1b n=37 SCHOOL "B" teachers
Items ranked by frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR]] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of organisational climate [OC] and categorised as ethos [E]

(ii) Ethos items

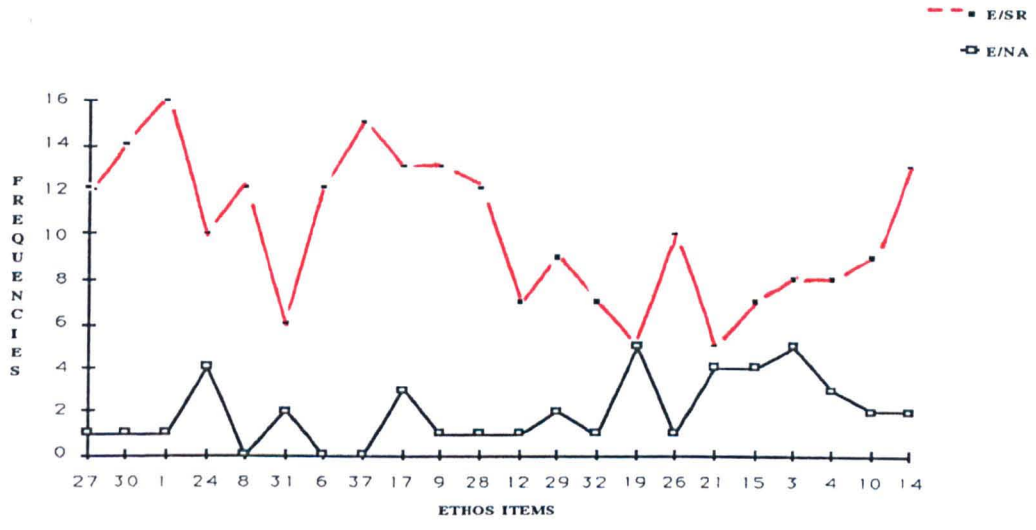


Figure 11.6a n=18 INSET teachers
Items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of ethos [E

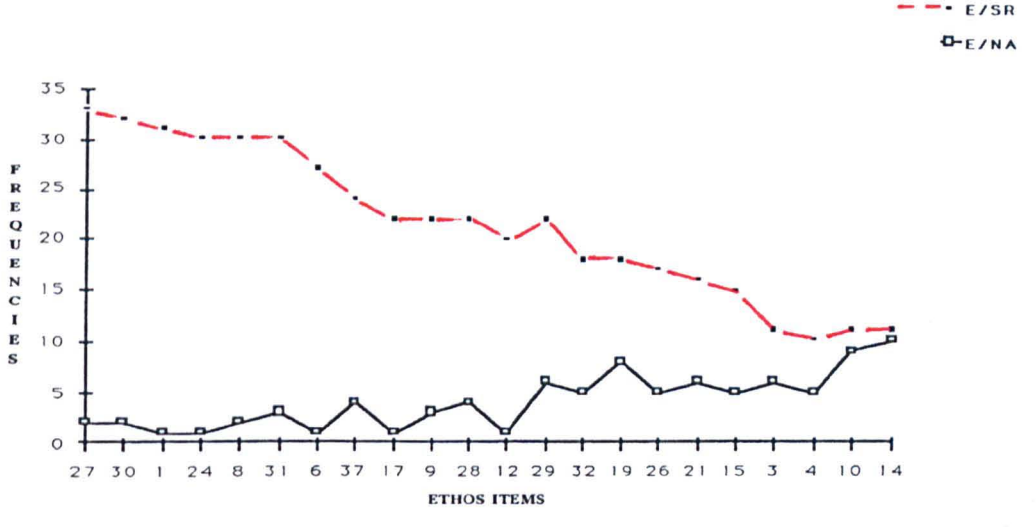


Figure 11.2a n=37 SCHOOL "B" teachers
Items ranked by frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of ethos [E]

For ethos items categorised as ethos, there is less separation between SR and NA frequencies than for school "B" teachers, (Figure 11.6a & 11.2a). Unlike school "B" teachers, item 19 (single/mixed sex), item 21 (elitist/ egalitarian values), item 24 (relative concern for maximising interests and opportunities for all ages of ability), and item 31 (quality of teaching throughout the school) are not strong indicators of ethos. Conversely, INSET teachers differentiate meanings by item 10 (concern for appropriate

dress/uniform) and item 14 (traditional/ progressive approaches), whereas school "B" teachers appear to consider these items are irrelevant.

For ethos items categorised as organisational climate the profiles of INSET teachers, (Figure 11.6b), and school "B" teachers, (Figure 11.2b), are similarly confused. INSET teachers, however, as for the senior management teachers, have more NA frequencies to indicate they consider ethos items are inappropriate as meanings of organisational climate. INSET teachers, therefore, seem more certain than school "B" teachers that ethos items relate to ethos and not organisational climate. Thus, the content validity of ethos items appears to be supported across both teacher groups.

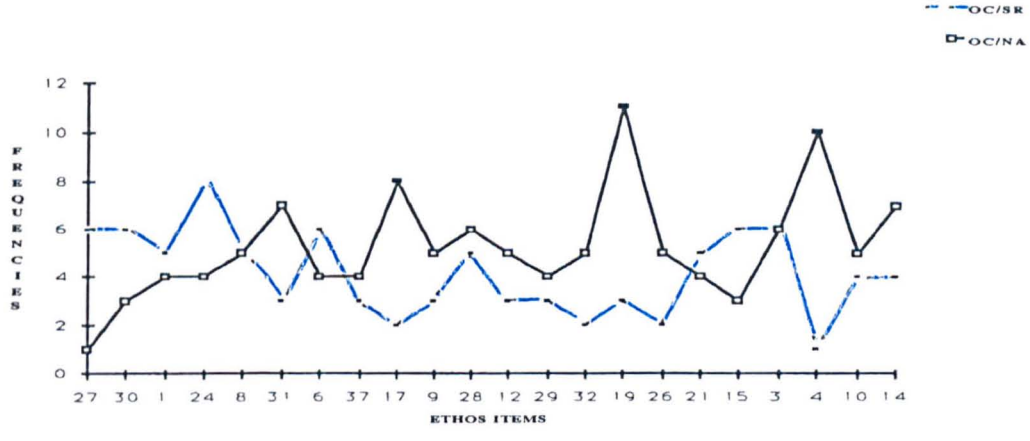


Figure 11.6b n=18 INSET teachers
Items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of ethos [E] and categorised as organisational climate [OC]

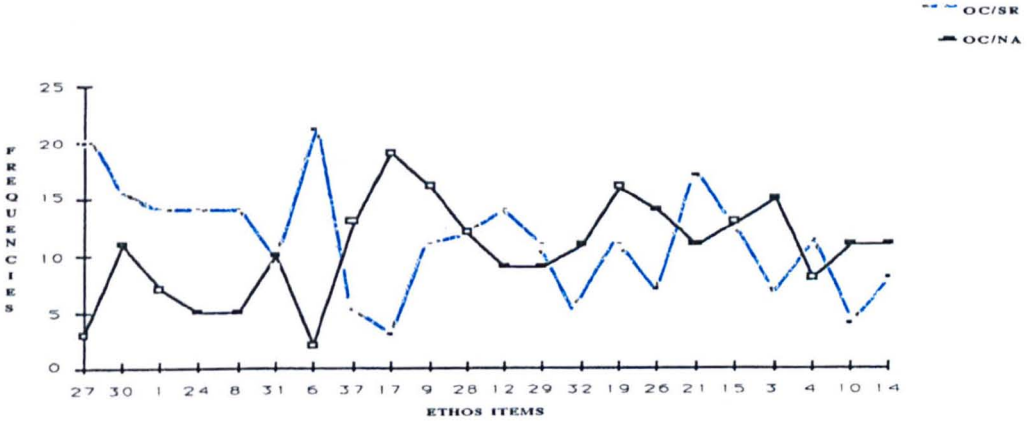


Figure 11.2b n=37 SCHOOL "B" teachers -
Items ranked by frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of ethos [E] and categorised as organisational climate [OC]

(iii) Organisational climate and ethos items as meanings of school climate

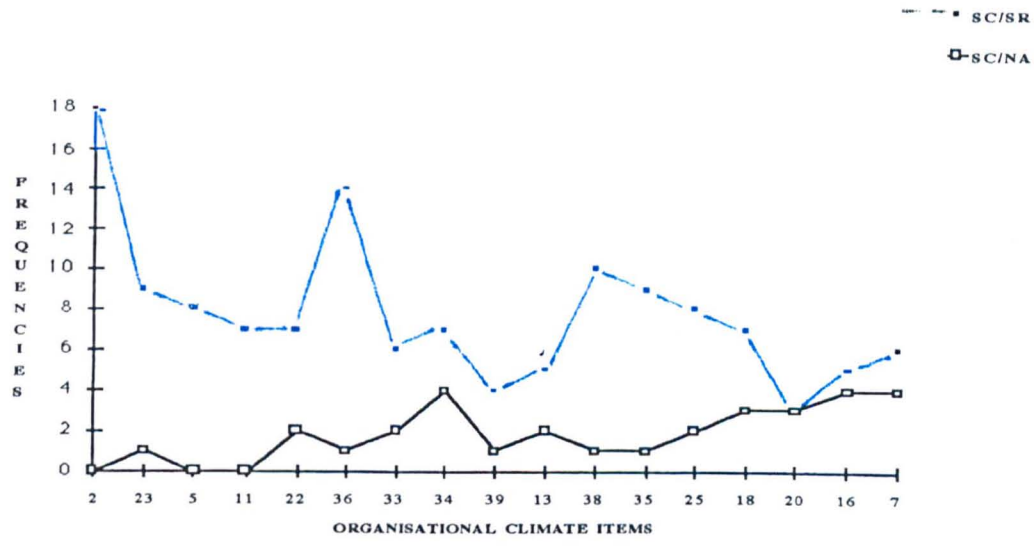


Figure 11.5c n=18 INSET teachers
Items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of organisational climate [OC] and categorised as school climate [SC]

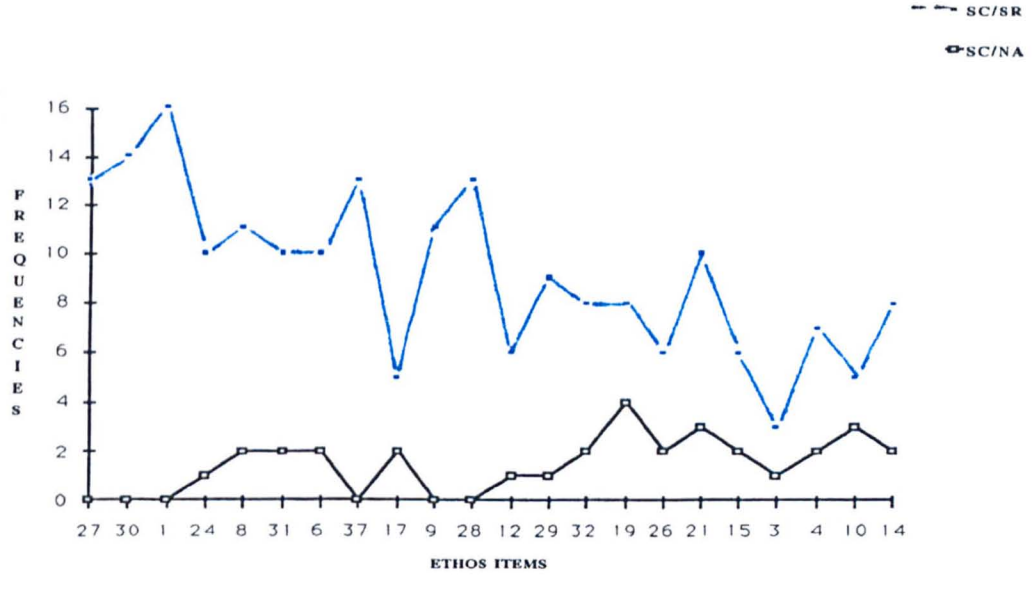


Figure 11.6c n=18 INSET teachers
Items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of ethos [E] and categorised as school climate [SC]

Both sets of items are relevant for INSET teachers' meanings of the term, school climate. Both profiles show separation by the same rank order of items as school "B"

teachers to suggest the same items are strong/weak indicators of all three terms, (Figures 11.5c & 11.6c).

Higher SR frequencies however, indicate school climate meanings relate more to ethos items with item 1, (nature of teacher-pupil relationships), item 9 (school culture), item 27 (teacher commitment), item 28 (pupil commitment to work) and item 30 (school atmosphere), as the strongest indicators; item 17 (school reputation/ tradition), item 3 (physical environment), and item 10 (school uniform), are weaker indicators of school climate. Thus, the most important items appear to be those concerned with the perceived atmosphere arising from social relationships.

Strong indicators of school climate by organisational climate items are also those concerned with relationships - but teacher-management relationships; item 2 (headteacher's style of leadership), item 36 (ways decisions are made), and item 38 (balance between autonomy and control). Thus, meanings of school climate appear to link the terms, ethos and organisational climate, by an overall concern for school relationships.

3.b. Subject analysis

[i] Meanings of ethos and organisational climate, [E/OC], (Fig.11.7, p.251 & facing page 252).

As for school "B" teachers, frequencies of "same" scores (with corresponding "SR-change" scores) of ethos and organisational climate items enable INSET teachers to be identified as high or low separators of these terms, (Appendix 12b).

As for school "B" teachers, INSET teachers have more "same" than "SR-change" score frequencies overall, but have less "same" and more "SR-change" paired items, to suggest they differentiate more between terms, (p.251). 3/18 INSET teachers, too, appear as high separators of meanings with higher "SR-change" than "same" score frequencies (Fig. 11.7), compared with 5/37 school "B" teachers, (Fig. 11.3).

Figure 11.7 n=18 INSET teachers
Teachers ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of "same" and "strong change" paired scores for meanings of ethos and organisational climate [E/OC]

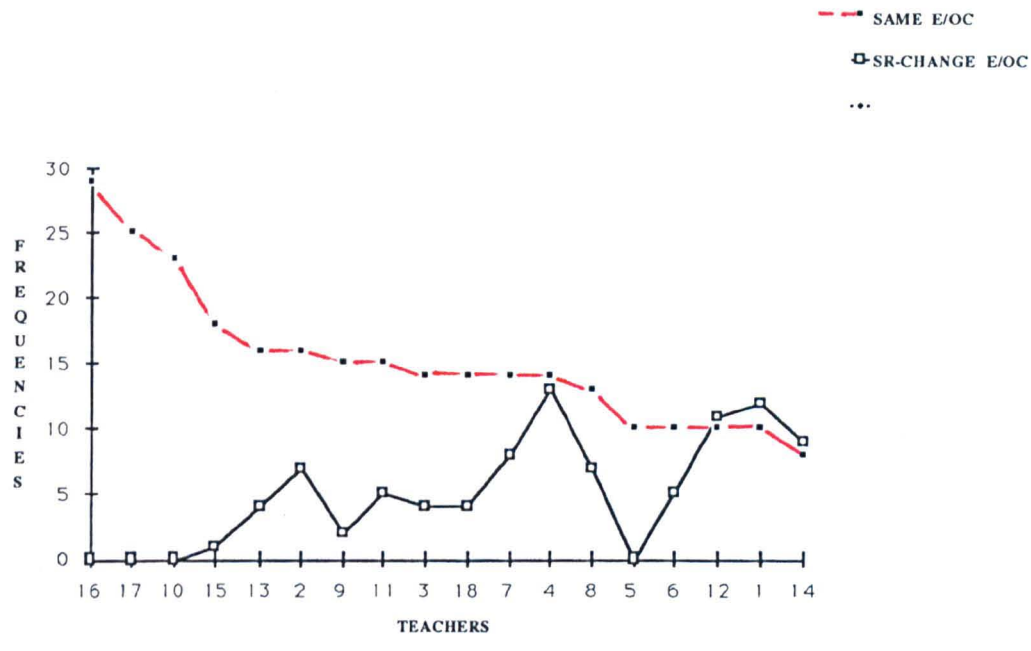


Figure 11.3 n=37 school B teachers
Teachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" paired scores for meanings of ethos and organisational climate [E/OC]

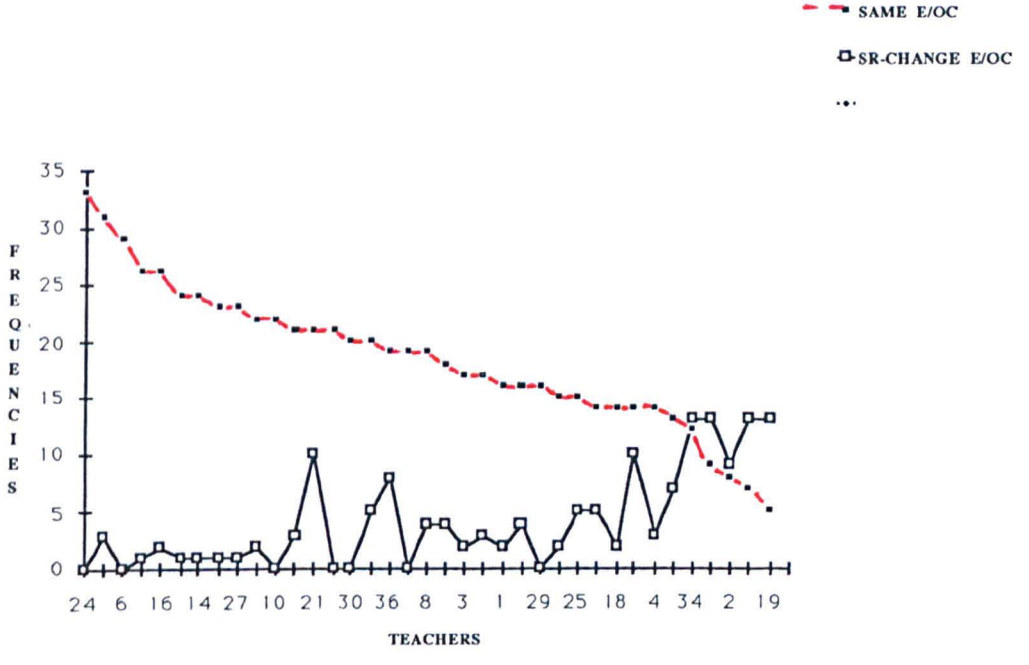


FIGURE 11.7 n=18 INSET TEACHERS

Teachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change] paired scores for meanings of ethos and organisational climate [E/OC]

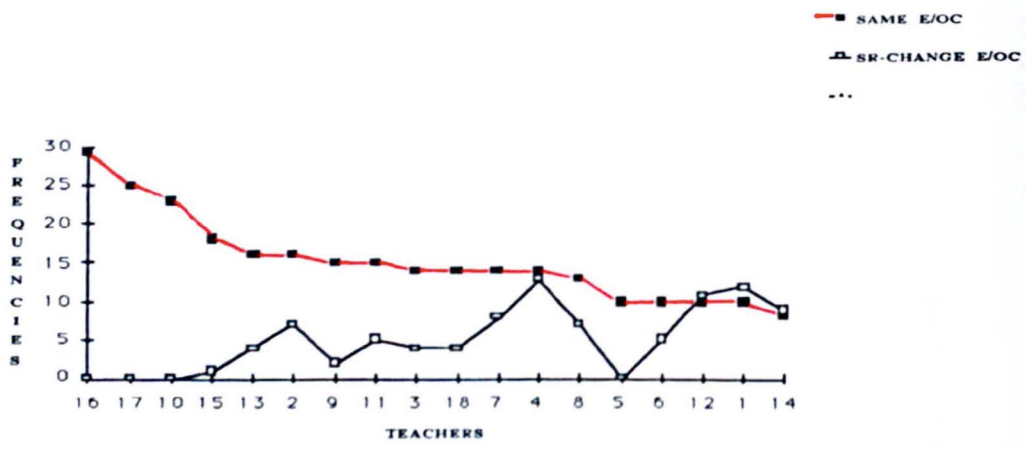


FIGURE 11.8 n=18 INSET TEACHERS

Teachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change] paired scores for meanings of ethos and school climate [E/SC]

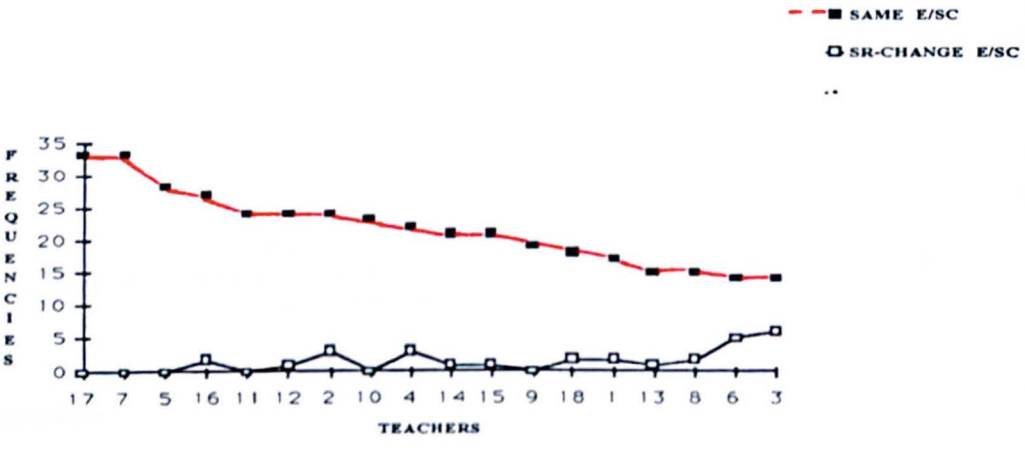
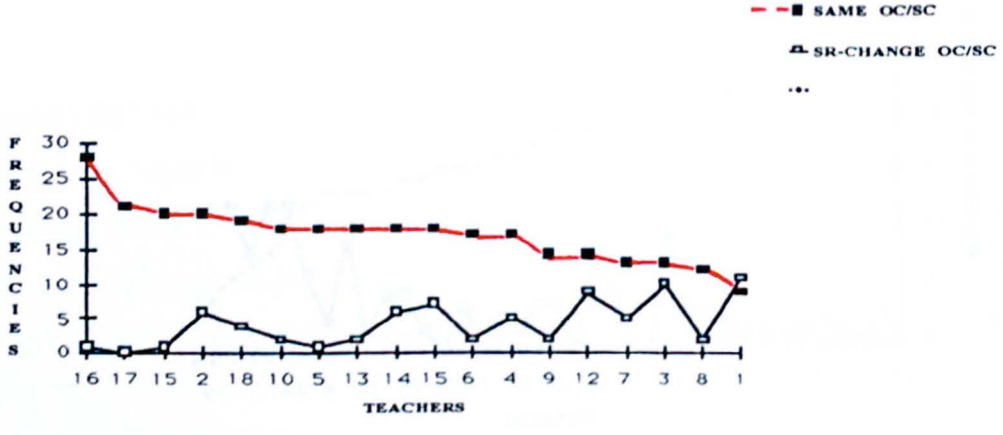
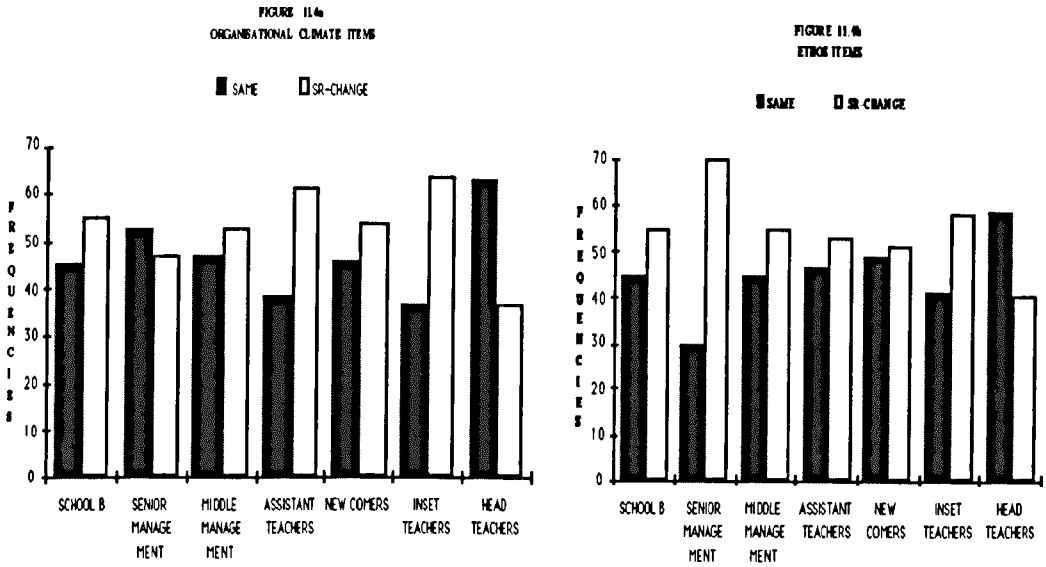


FIGURE 11.9 n=18 INSET TEACHERS

Teachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change] paired scores for meanings of organisational climate and school climate [OC/SC]



Histograms for INSET teachers show the terms are synonymous for only 36.3% of paired scores by organisational climate items and 41.7% by ethos items, compared with school "B" teachers for whom 45% of paired scores are synonymous for each set of items. The direction of change for INSET teachers is significant with p=0.022 for organisational climate items and p=0.016 for ethos items at p=0.05 level, (Appendix 15), supporting the interpretation of the item analysis profiles, that INSET teachers differentiate between term meanings more than school "B" teachers, (Figures 11.4a & 11.4b).



(ii) Meanings of ethos and school climate, [E/SC], (Fig.11.8, facing page).

Profiles ranked by frequencies of same/SR-change scores for ethos and school climate, (E/SC), demonstrate the similarity of these meanings for INSET teachers. All teachers appear to consider the terms are more similar than dissimilar as even the lowest ranked "same" scores have low "SR-change" frequencies, (Fig.11.8). There is also more separation of frequencies than for the terms, ethos and organisational climate, (Figure 11.7).

Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient of r=+0.35 for paired (E/SC) scores supports this interpretation though it is not significant with r=+0.468 required at 16 (N-2) degrees of freedom, two-tailed, at p=0.05, (Appendix 16a).

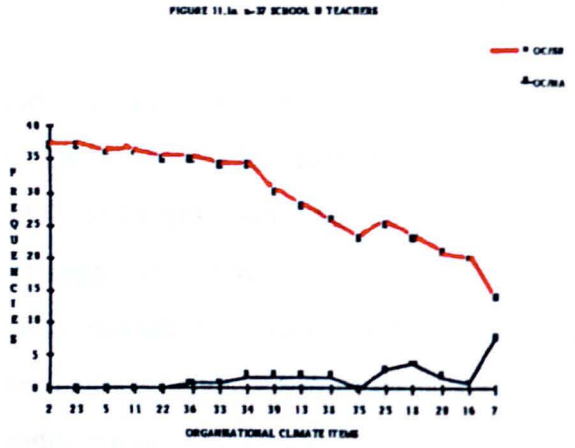
(iii). Meanings of school climate and organisational climate, [SC/OC] (Fig.11.9, page 252).

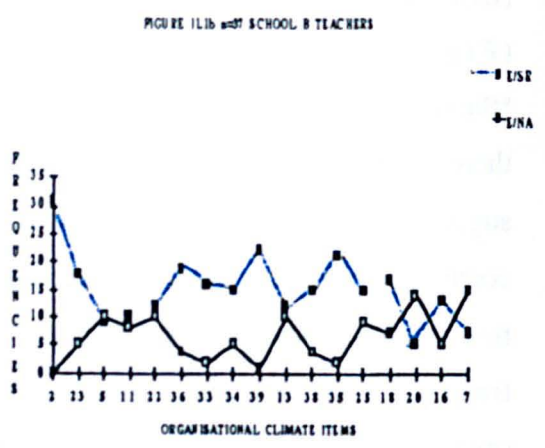
"Same" scores for school climate and organisational climate, (SC/OC), are high but there are more "SR-change" score frequencies than between ethos and school climate, to suggest INSET teachers differentiate more between these meanings, (Fig.11.9). The correlation of only r=+0.056, compared with r=+0.35 for E/SC paired scores supports this interpretation, (Appendix 16a). There are, however, fewer SR-change score frequencies for meanings of school climate and organisational climate than for ethos and organisational climate, emphasising teachers' differentiation between the terms, ethos and organisational climate.

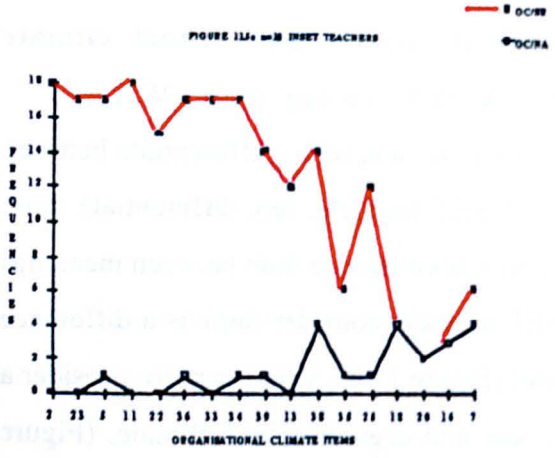
(iv). Comparison of ethos and organisational climate [E/OC], ethos and school climate [E/SC], and organisational climate and school climate [OC/SC] meanings, (Figures 11.7, 11.8 & 11.9, facing page 252).

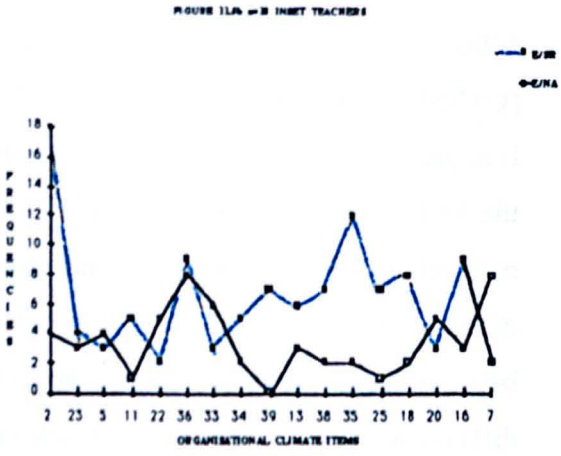
It appears that INSET teachers - more than school "B" teachers - differentiate between the terms, ethos and organisational climate. INSET teachers, too, differentiate more between meanings of organisational climate and school climate than between meanings of ethos and school climate - very few INSET teachers consider there is a difference between meanings of ethos and school climate, (Figure 11.8), whereas more consider a difference between meanings of school climate and organisational climate, (Figure 11.9). The difference appears even greater for meanings of ethos and organisational climate. Thus, the term, school climate, appears to embrace meanings of both ethos and organisational climate. The greatest distinction lies between SR-change scores for ethos and organisational climate meanings.

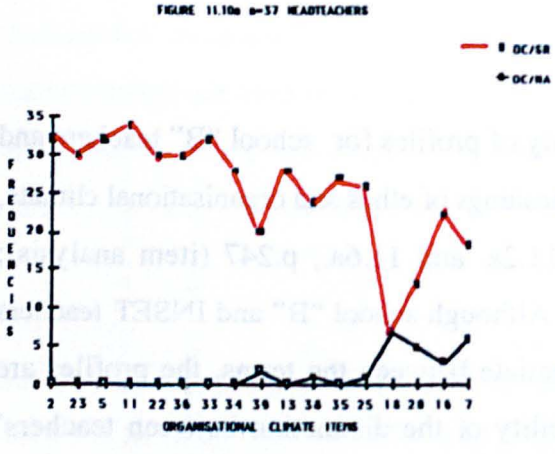
Equally important, however, is the similarity of profiles for school "B" teachers and INSET teachers of the difference between meanings of ethos and organisational climate, (see Figures 11.1a. and 11.5a., p.245; 11.2a. and 11.6a., p.247 (item analysis); Figures 11.3 and 11.7, (subject analysis). Although school "B" and INSET teachers differ in the degree to which they differentiate between the terms, the profiles are remarkably similar, suggesting some stability of the distinction between teachers' meanings of these terms.

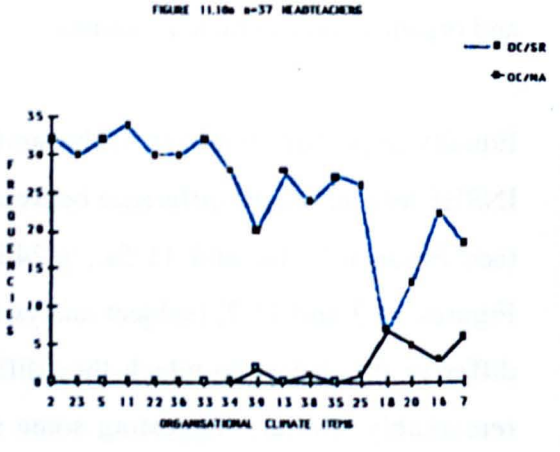












Organisational climate items ranked by frequencies of "strongly represents"[SR] and "not appropriate"[NA] meanings of (a) organisational climate and (b) ethos.

4. The degree of congruence between headteachers' and teachers' meanings of the terms, organisational climate, ethos and school climate;

4.a. Item analysis

(i) Organisational climate items

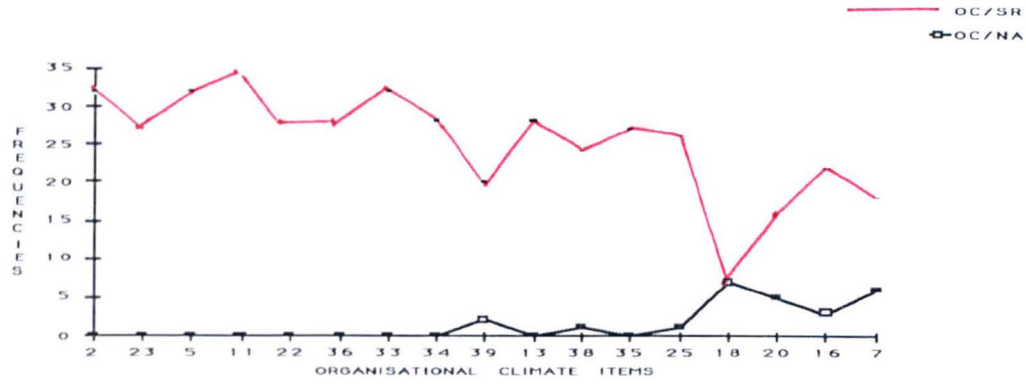


Figure 11.10a n=37 Headteachers
Items ranked by frequencies of school B teachers' "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate"[NA] meanings of organisational climate

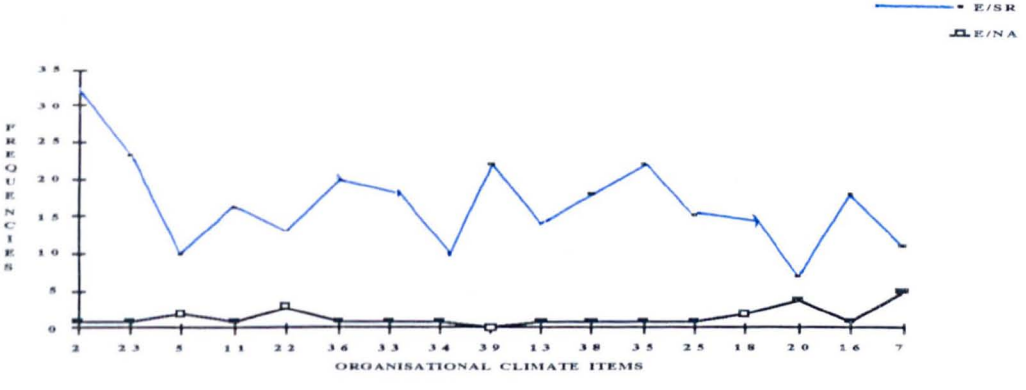
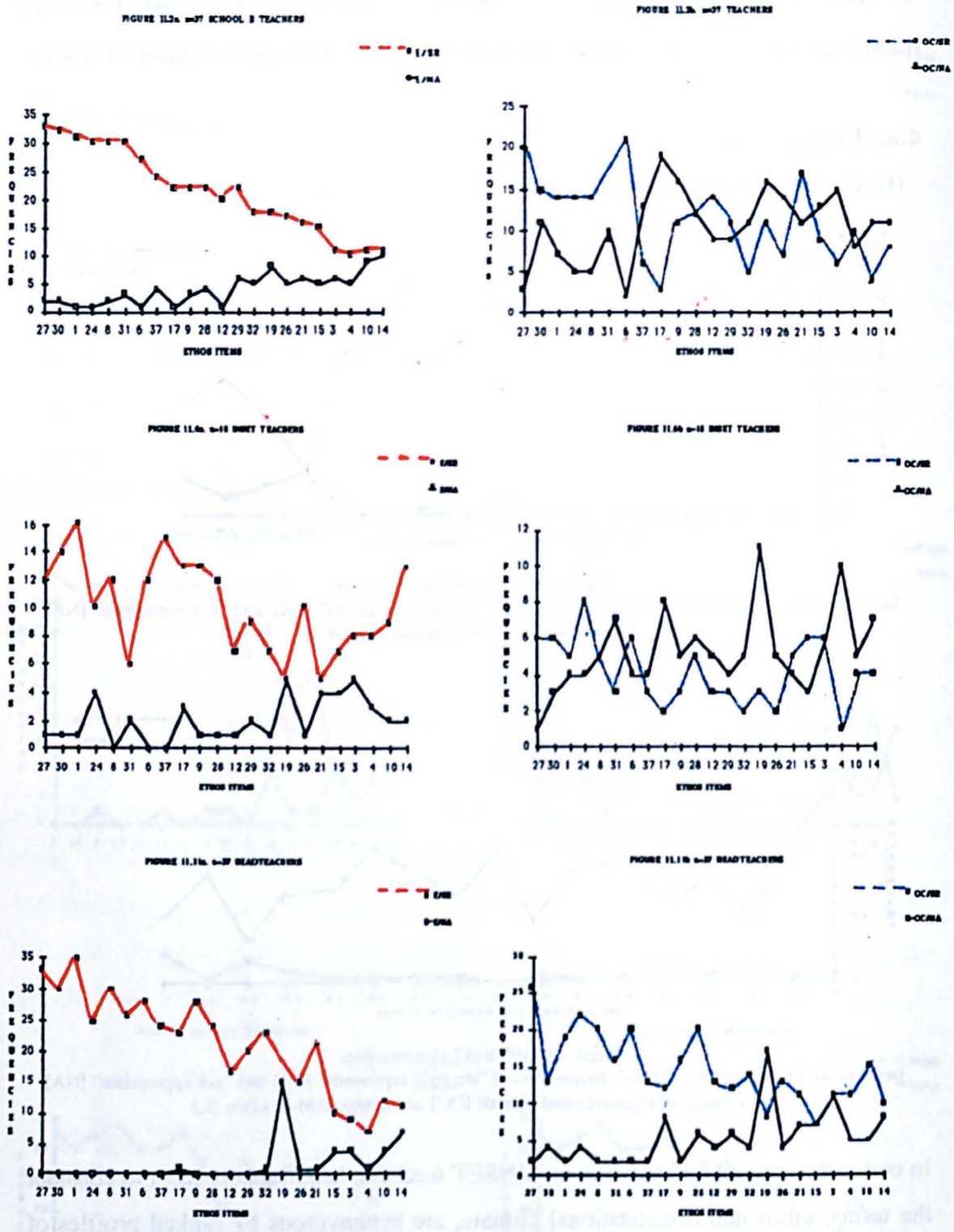


Figure 11.10b n=37 Headteachers
Items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of "strongly represents" [SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of organisational climate [OC] and categorised as ethos [E]

In contrast to school "B" teachers and INSET teachers, headteachers seem to consider the terms, ethos and organisational climate, are synonymous by ranked profiles of organisational climate items, (Figures 11.10a & 11.10b). There is clear separation of frequencies for items addressed to each term to indicate a stronger relationship between term meanings than for either school "B" teachers or INSET teachers. Even item 7 (my experience of the organisation upon my own perceptions and feelings) which is



Ethos items ranked by frequencies of "strongly represents"[SR] and "not appropriate" [NA] meanings of (a) ethos and (b) organisational climate

confused by both school "B" and INSET teachers is, for headteachers, less weak as both indicator and discriminator. Item 18, (deep-down inside, below the surface processes), is the weakest indicator. Varying SR and NA frequencies for these items, however, suggest headteachers differentiate more than school "B" headteacher, who considers all items strongly represent the term, (Appendix 17). Thus, school "B" headteacher's responses are more extreme in representing a management perspective of term meanings.

(ii) Ethos items

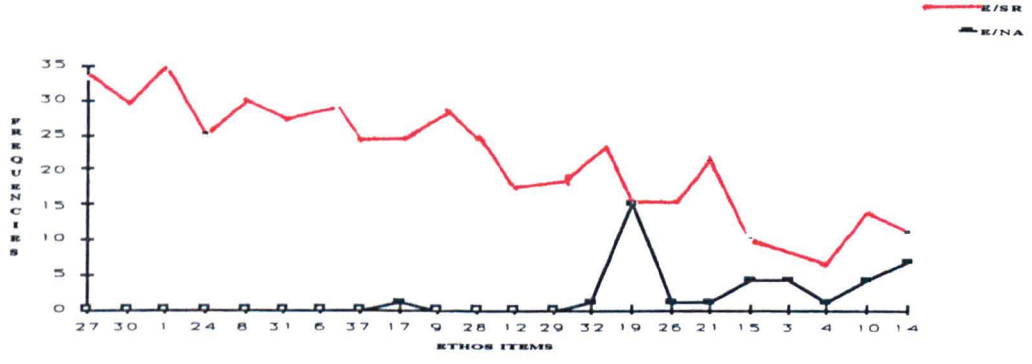


Figure 11.11a n=37 Headteachers
Items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of :"strongly represents" [SR] and not "appropriate" [NA] meanings of ethos,[E]

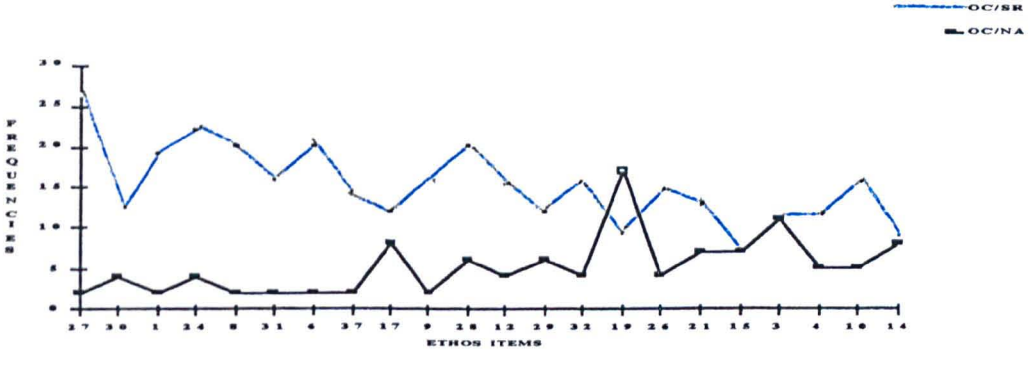


Figure 11.11b n=37 Headteachers
Items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of :"strongly represents" [SR] and not "appropriate" [NA] meanings of ethos and categorised as organisational climate, [OC]

The terms also have similar meanings for headteachers according to ethos items. Few items are inappropriate as ethos meanings, except item 19, (single sex/mixed sex), which is confused as ethos and irrelevant as organisational climate, (Figures 11.11a & 11.11b). For school "B" headteacher, item 19 is a strong indicator of both terms - but still a weak discriminator - while item 28 (pupil commitment to work), item 32 (level of

parental control) and item 15 (academic emphasis) are meanings of organisational climate only. However, although they differ as to which items are strong indicators, both headteachers and school "B" headteacher appear to consider the terms more synonymous than either INSET teachers or school "B" teachers.

(iii) Organisational climate and ethos items as meanings of school climate

Headteachers also appear to perceive more similarities than INSET teachers for items categorised as school climate. Although SR frequencies for organisational climate items appear more irregular, there are fewer NA frequencies, (Figure 11.10c).

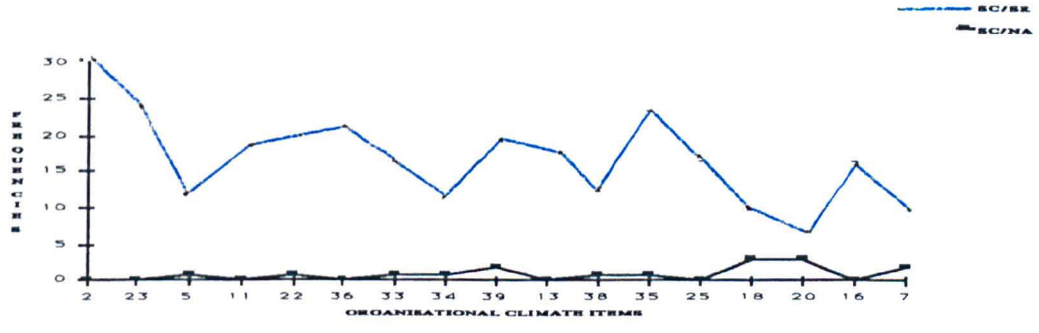


Figure 11.10c n=37 Headteachers
Organisational climate items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of "strongly represents:" [SR] and "not appropriate' [NA] meanings of school climate, [SC]

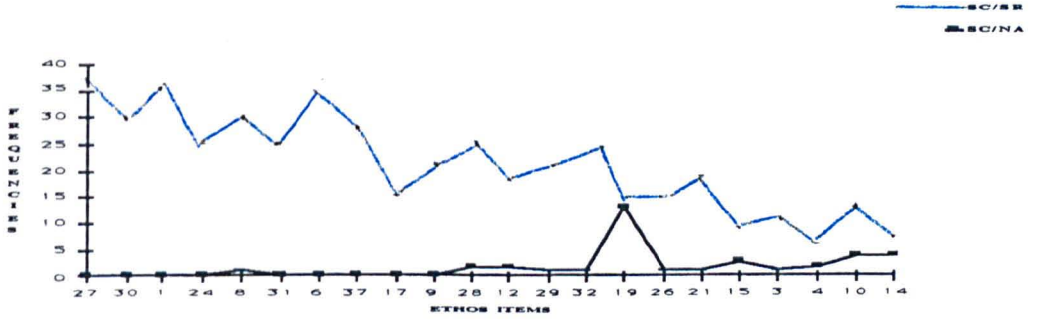


Figure 11.11c n=37 Headteachers
Ethos items ranked by school B teachers' frequencies of "strongly represents:" [SR] and "not appropriate' [NA] meanings of school climate, [SC]

As with INSET teachers, ethos items appear stronger indicators of school climate than organisational climate items with fewer items considered inappropriate. Thus, unlike INSET teachers, headteachers have low NA frequencies for all three terms, which

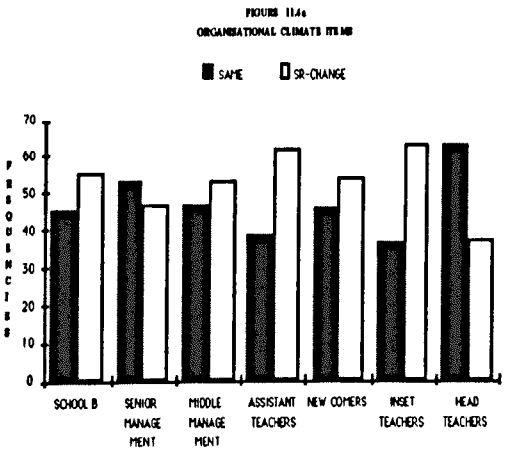
suggests they are considered more as synonyms. As for INSET teachers, item 2 (headteacher's style of leadership), - the strongest indicator of school climate by organisational climate items - and item 1 (teacher-pupil relationships), - the strongest indicator by ethos items - suggest headteachers consider school climate meanings relate to interpersonal relationships throughout school.

4.b. Subject analysis

[i] Meanings of ethos and organisational climate,[E/OC], (Figure 11.12, facing pp.258 & 260)

Five headteachers have "same" scores for all items and so make no distinction between terms and only one headteacher has more "SR-change" than "same" score frequencies, (Figure 11.12, facing page 258). Few headteachers, therefore, differentiate between either term. Headteachers, too, have more "same" and, certainly, more nil "SR-change" score frequencies than either school "B" teachers or INSET teachers to indicate they are low separators of ethos and organisational climate meanings, (Figures 11.3., 11.7., and 11.12., facing p.260).

Histograms indicate meanings of ethos and organisational climate are synonymous for 61.2% of headteachers' paired scores for organisational climate items and for 58.8% of paired scores by ethos items, compared with 36.3% and 41.7% respectively for INSET teachers and 45% for each set of items for school "B" teachers, (Figures 11.4a & 11.4b).



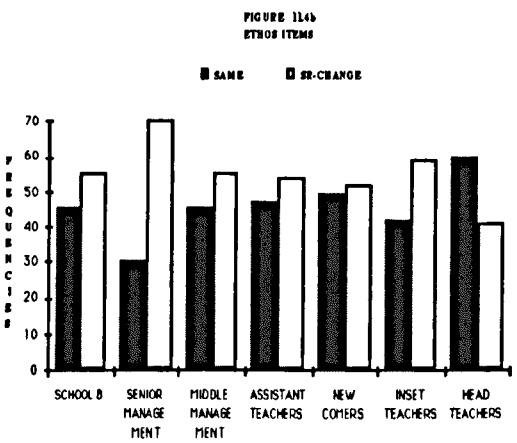


FIGURE 11.12 n=37 HEADTEACHERS

Headteachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change] paired scores for meanings of ethos and organisational climate [E/OC]

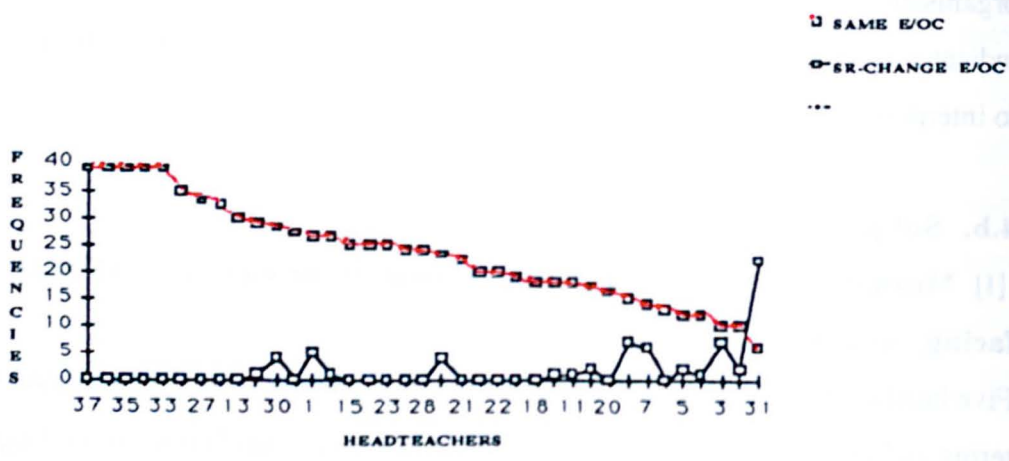


FIGURE 11.13 n=37 HEADTEACHERS

Headteachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change] paired scores for meanings of ethos and school climate [E/SC]

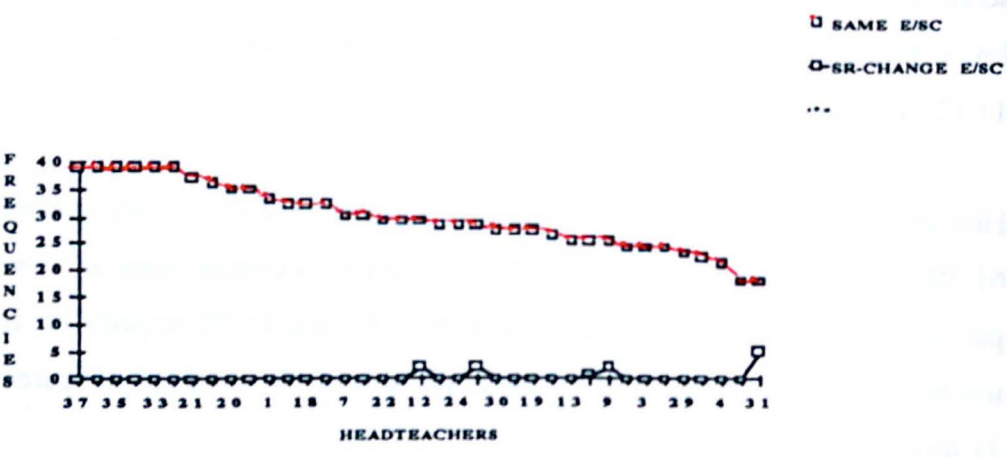
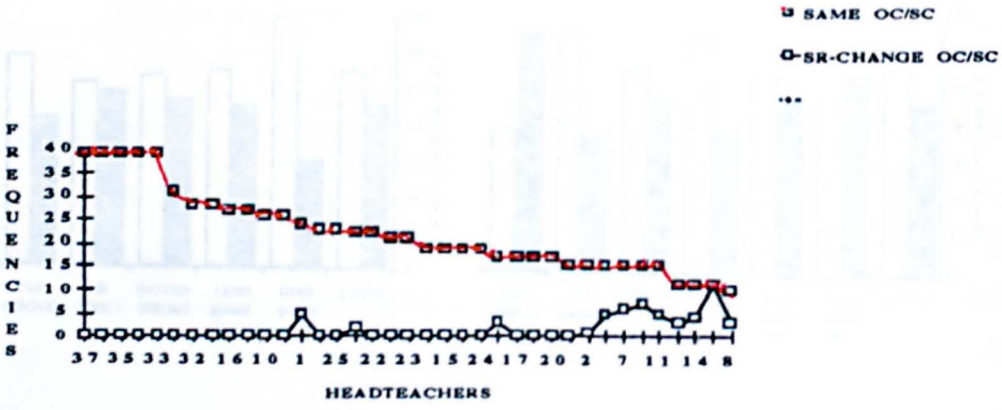


FIGURE 11.14 n=37 HEADTEACHERS

Headteachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change] paired scores for meanings of organisational climate and school climate[OC/SC]

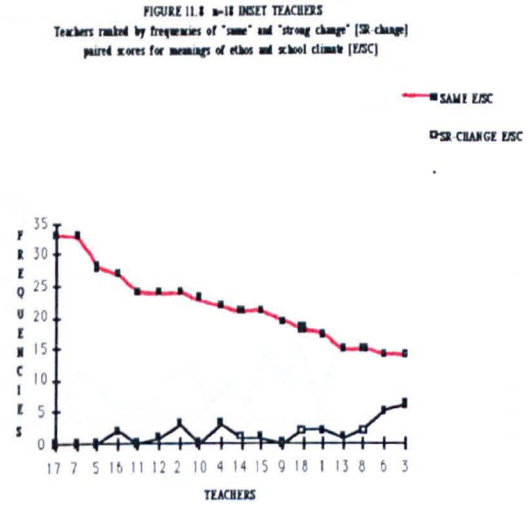


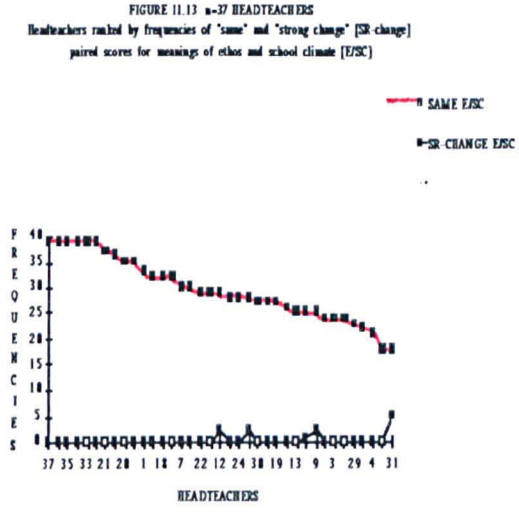
The similarity is very significant with p=0.00 for both sets of items at p=0.05 level, (Appendix 15). Thus, headteachers more than school "B" teachers, consider the term meanings more similar than do INSET teachers.

(ii) Meanings of ethos and school climate, [E/SC], (Figure 11.13, facing page).

Slowly decreasing "same" scores and almost nil "SR-change" scores suggest only minor differences among headteachers' meanings of these terms. There are more "same" scores and fewer SR-change score frequencies than for meanings of ethos and organisational climate, suggesting that headteachers consider even more similarity between these terms. Five headteachers make no distinction between terms and no headteacher has more "SR-change" than "same" scores, (Figure 11.13). Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient of r=+0.551 is significant even at p=0.01 (r=0.418, 35 (N-2) degrees of freedom, two-tailed), to support this interpretation, (Appendix 16b).

The ranked profile of "same" and SR-change score frequencies also indicates more similarities between these term meanings than for INSET teachers, (Figures 11.8 & 11.13).





(iii) Meanings of school climate and organisational climate, [SC/OC)], (Figure 11.14, facing page 258).

Although there are fewer "same" and more SR-change scores for these terms than for ethos and school climate paired scores, (Figure 11.13), the terms are still similar and no headteacher has more "SR-change" than "same" scores, (Figure 11.14), The correlation, however, is not significant at r=+0.255 - unlike the E/SC scores which correlate significantly at r=+0.551, (Appendix 16b). Similarly, there are fewer "same" score frequencies - but also fewer SR-change score frequencies - for these terms compared with those for ethos and organisational climate, (Figures 11.12 and 11.14). This suggests that although headteachers consider the terms, school climate and organisational climate are alike, they distinguish more between these than between the terms, ethos and organisational climate.

The ranked profiles of "same" and SR-change score frequencies, (Figures 11.9 and 11.14), however, indicate more similarity for headteachers between the terms, school climate and organisational climate which correlate at r=+0.255, than those for INSET teachers which only correlate at r=+0.056, (Appendix 16b). "Same" scores may appear to fall more rapidly but there are more nil SR-change score frequencies than for INSET teachers.

FIGURE 11.9 n=18 INSET TEACHERS
Teachers ranked by frequencies of 'same' and 'strong change' [SR-change] paired scores for meanings of organisational climate and school climate [OC/SC]

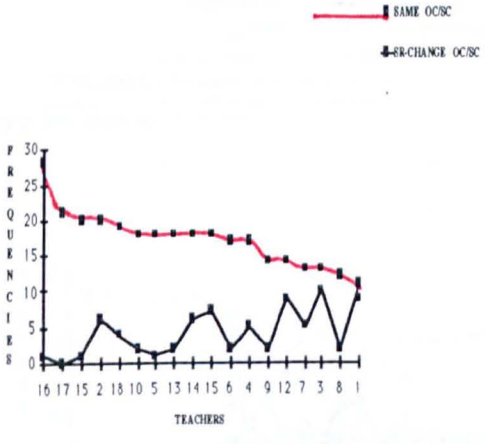


FIGURE 11.14 n=37 HEADTEACHERS
Headteachers ranked by frequencies of 'same' and 'strong change' [SR-change] paired scores for meanings of organisational climate and school climate[OC/SC]

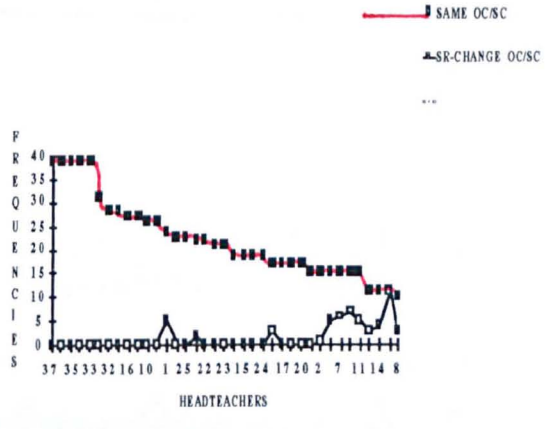


FIGURE 11.3 n=37 SCHOOL B TEACHERS
Teachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change]
paired scores for meanings of ethos and organisational climate [E/OC]

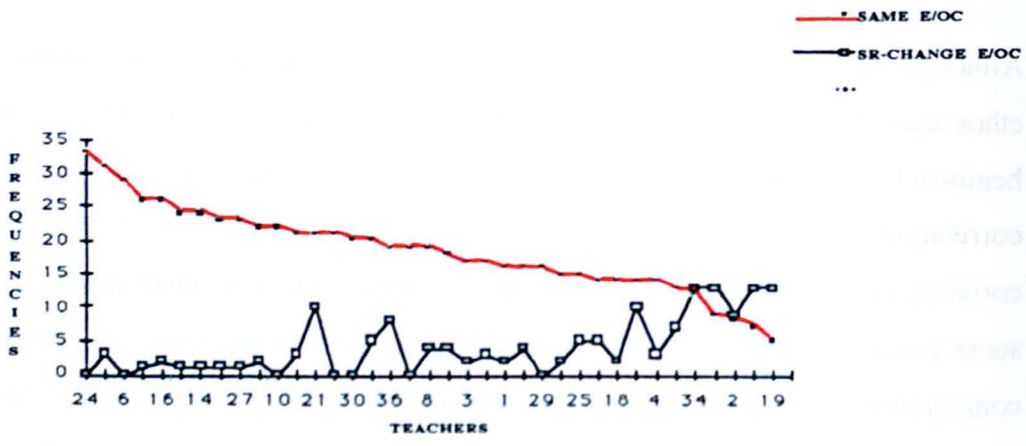


FIGURE 11.7 n=18 INSET TEACHERS
Teachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change]
paired scores for meanings of ethos and organisational climate [E/OC]

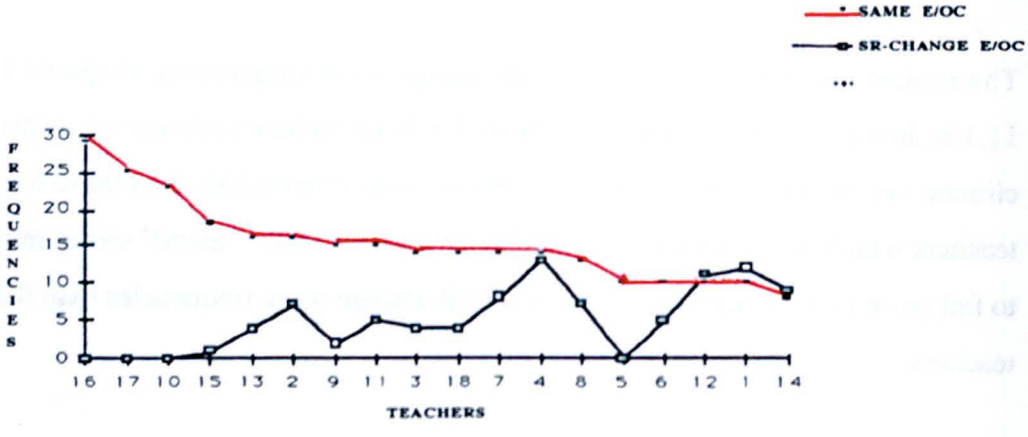
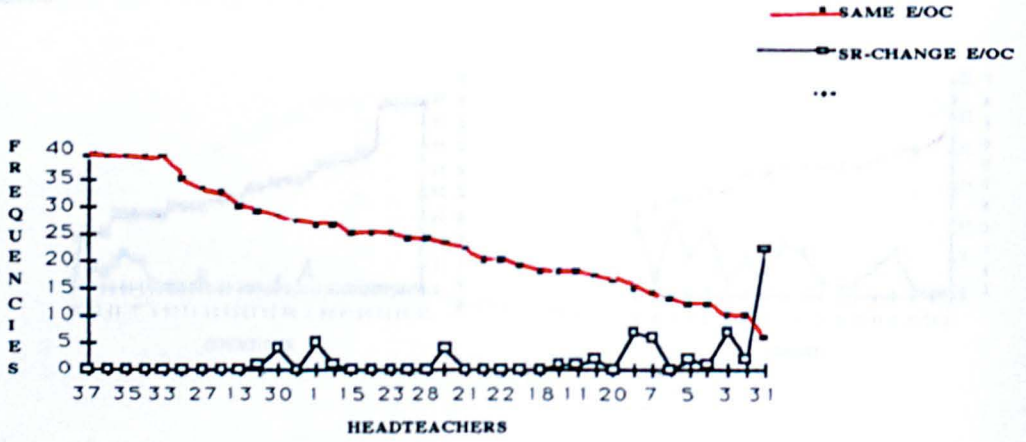


FIGURE 11.12 n=37 HEADTEACHERS
Headteachers ranked by frequencies of "same" and "strong change" [SR-change]
paired scores for meanings of ethos and organisational climate [E/OC]



Comparison of meanings of ethos and organisational climate, [E/OC], among school "B" teachers, INSET teachers and headteachers.

While school "B" teachers, INSET teachers and headteachers may differentiate in degree between meanings of ethos and organisational climate - with INSET teachers differentiating most and headteachers differentiating least - it is equally important to point out the robustness, or stability, of differences in meaning between the terms, ethos and organisational climate, across teachers and headteachers. All three samples indicate that organisational climate items are appropriate and not inappropriate as meanings of organisational climate, although headteachers consider they are also appropriate as ethos meanings, (Figures 11.1a. and 1b.; 11.5a and 5b.;11.10a and 10b; facing page 254). Similarly, teachers as well as headteachers consider ethos items are more appropriate than inappropriate as ethos meanings; fewer headteachers consider ethos items are also appropriate as meanings of organisational climate,.(Figures 11.2a and 2b; 11.6a and 6b; 11.11a and 11b, facing page 255). With "same" and SR-change profiles, too, all samples have similar "same" score profiles. It is the differences among SR-change scores that point more to between-sample E/OC distinctions with teachers, but not headteachers, with headteachers indicating very little change between meanings, (Figures 11.3, 11.7 and 11.12, facing page). Figures 11.15a and 11.16a below, indicate the similarity across samples of the appropriateness of organisational climate and ethos items. More ethos than organisational climate items are considered inappropriate .

FIGURE 11.15a
n=37 SCHOOL B; n=18 INSET; n=37 HEADTEACHERS
Items ranked by frequencies of 'strongly represents'[SR] with corresponding 'not appropriate'[NA] meanings of organisational climate [OC]

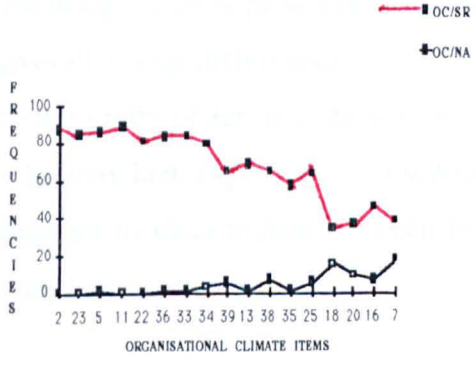
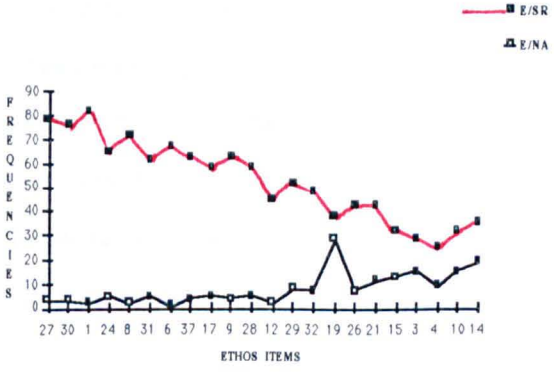


FIGURE 11.16a
n=37 SCHOOL B; n=18 INSET; n=37 HEADTEACHERS
Items ranked by frequencies of 'strongly represents' [SR] with corresponding 'not appropriate'[NA] meanings of ethos [E]



CONCLUSIONS

Thus, for headteachers all three terms, ethos, organisational climate and school climate, are very similar. The link is particularly strong between ethos and school climate. The similarity of the terms, ethos and organisational climate, however, suggest headteachers' and teachers' meanings of each term are not congruent: headteachers consider the terms are significantly similar, while teachers consider there are differences in meaning which are statistically significant for INSET teachers. INSET teachers, therefore, appear to perceive more differences in term meanings than school "B" teachers so supporting the interpretation of the qualitative analysis. Compared with school "B" however, few teachers in this sample of INSET teachers may have held positions of management responsibility.

Teachers' data suggest meanings of ethos are more concerned with the outcomes of teacher-pupil relationships throughout the school while meanings of organisational climate relate to their reactions to management processes initiated to create or maintain school ethos. Headteachers may consider the terms more synonymous as they are the initiators of management processes to achieve the goals that define school ethos.

Teachers' and headteachers' profiles also partly support the findings of those traditional climate studies which claim the term, organisational climate (including ethos), is not a unitary perception differentially perceived, but a construct concerning different climates which are perceived by different role groups in an organisational hierarchy. In school "B" there are role group differences, with a general pattern of increasing similarity of terms as role status and management responsibility increase. Differentiation of meanings is most pronounced among assistant teachers which, when combined with overall group differences in school "B" becomes significant on both sets of items. Synonymity of terms is most pronounced among headteachers and also, newcomers, who may lack experience of a school's management processes. Only one headteacher appears to discriminate between term meanings by higher change than same score frequencies.

The analyses also highlight the differences between teachers and headteachers of the term, school climate. For INSET teachers, meanings of school climate appear closely related to ethos, but include teacher-teacher with teacher-pupil relationships in more immediate, on-going school processes. Their meanings of school climate, therefore, appear to embrace the separate meanings of ethos and organisational climate. Headteachers seem unaware of these distinctions. For headteachers - more than INSET teachers - school climate and ethos are significantly correlated to suggest the terms are synonymous. Similarly, headteachers consider the terms, school climate and organisational climate are related - though not significantly - whereas for INSET teachers there is little correlation. Headteachers, therefore, perceive more similarity in the meanings of all three terms.

These differences are of interest as traditional climate studies with a management perspective of educational administration, have assumed the three terms are synonymous, that headteachers also assume this synonymity, and that all teachers share the synonymity assumed by headteachers.

In conclusion, the final part of the study examines some reasons for these differences between headteachers and teachers. In order to initiate theory-building in terms that maintain the teacher perspective of the study, school "B" teachers are revisited so differences can be explained in the context of the original study.

CHAPTER 12

SCHOOL "B" REPORT

A meeting for a staff discussion of the results was arranged for the next INSET day with school "B" headteacher who had been kept informed of the emerging data and was familiar with the findings. A week prior to the discussion, each teacher received a report outlining the procedure and profiles of the investigation relevant to school "B" teachers and headteachers, (Appendix 17). Teachers were invited to interpret the following profiles before the meeting:

(i). Organisational climate and ethos item frequencies for school "B" teachers and role groups (Figs. 1a(i-v); 1b(i-v); 2a(i-v); 2b(i-v)), and for headteachers (Figs. 10a & 10b; 11a & 11b);

(ii) same/change E/OC score frequencies for school "B" teachers and headteachers, (Figs. 3 & 12).

No interpretation of the data was provided.

The purpose of the discussion was to draw forth observations and interpretations of the differences between headteachers' and teachers' data to ensure all teachers' understanding. To seek explanation of the data in open discussion with all staff could have been confronting and inhibiting. Time was available during the day for individuals or small groups of teachers to discuss headteacher-teacher differences in term meanings. Explanations of the data represent the different views of teachers across all role groups of the organisational hierarchy.

General reactions of teachers to the differences in term meanings ranged from surprise: "totally unbelievable - virtually 100% correspondence!" and "does it mean being single-minded in knowing exactly what the aims are and organising to fit in with those?" to dismay: "it accounts for why the management climate is so poor".

There were two main groups of explanations, both of which are related to problems of management communication and contain possibilities for further study.

The first group of explanations concerned the problem of isolation caused by the

management role and its attendant difficulties of communication. Explanations were both sympathetic and critical towards this problem. Sympathetic explanations however, were confined to one role group - assistant teachers. Critical explanations ranged across role groups - including assistant teachers - and varied according to the perceptions of different role groups.

The contrasting reasons of assistant teachers may reflect different individual needs for independence and dependence in a work environment among those not in a management role. Sympathetic explanations, for example, seem to reflect a need for support, for headteachers are "condemned by the nature of their job to being out of touch"; they are in "lonely isolation" being "paid to take responsibility" and "vulnerable to external pressures"; they "perform to the image they think they ought to have - i.e., being seen to exert authority". Thus, they have a "vested interest in not admitting the terms are separate" when "setting and dictating objectives for their school's ethos"; they "do not give attention to the objectives of how to get there" for this is to acknowledge the problems of staff; they "block these in order to survive" for "they have to protect their own ego". Headteachers "must find these results very threatening" for the terms "must be tied together if they are to feel satisfied with what they do".

The headteacher's explanation also reflects the separation caused by assuming responsibility for management, for the differences "reflect different stages of experience in a career - we have experience of management and the realisation of role has its effect upon ethos and organisational climate"

Other explanations about management isolation are critical - with the problem of communication paramount. For senior management teachers, for example, it is "very worrying the terms should be seen quite so differently for it reflects headteachers' lack of awareness for the stresses at any level of management within the school"; different meanings "relate to the power structure and hierarchy - and the isolation of the job of management".

For middle management teachers, explanations expose problems of conflict and power

between the roles and responsibilities of two management levels - to support critics of system theory who point out that organisations are characterised by conflict as well as consensus, (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The headteacher, for example, argues the role of middle management exists for teachers to assume the responsibility of management and administration commensurate with this role status" and until "requisite skills for corporate management" are acquired "authority cannot be delegated by any responsible Head". Middle management teachers consider they have to "field from both directions - from senior management as well as from those below". For the latter, they "work without authority for decisions are not ratified". They readily agree with the profile differences for the management viewpoint is a "blinkered view of closed eyes and ears"; "headteachers do not appreciate teachers are in the classroom and have to work with the "isms" and "jargons" of management processes; headteachers are "not at the receiving end" but are "isolated by their role". The headteacher who distinguished between terms was "in touch with teachers and conscious of the effect of management processes upon them", so the school could operate "with a common sense of purpose".

The concerns of those assistant teachers with critical explanations are their perceived distance from management and the lack of correspondence between roles. Teachers' responsibilities and management concerns create "two distinct camps" with "two different climates": senior management forms "points of view diametrically opposed to the body of staff" for "through management they forget their roots at the chalk-face very quickly" and headteachers "see their schools in totally different ways from teachers - as they would like to think they are". They are "detached from the classroom" and "out of step for putting policies into practice" as they "have only a "limited degree of interaction with teachers". Relations with staff are "cosmetic - at the level of acquaintance, rather than real knowledge". One teacher, a newcomer, emphasises the size and distance of the gap, for teachers are perceived as "anchored to the sea-bed, with the headteacher as the wave thundering above"!

Thus, the management role appears to be differentially perceived by different role groups in the school. Explanations reflect a developing awareness of a management role with different communication problems for each role group.

The second group of teacher explanations concerns difficulties of communication arising from societal expectations of a headship role. For instance, headteachers are expected to emphasise "organisational and administrative aspects of the role to influence school ethos"; "only certain types of people become headteachers", for headship selection panels are administrators who "seek headteachers with administrative qualities". Thus, headteachers may only "pay lip-service to school ethos" being "more interested in the organising - "this is how you do it" - and "run the school as a business organisation rather than as a community". Teachers, as recipients of these processes would select headteachers "with interpersonal skills as well as administrative skills" as "consideration is more important than control" - but "teachers do not sit on selection panels for headteacher appointments".

Thus, headteacher-teacher differences in term meanings suggest a lack of awareness among headteachers for person management. They "have good intentions but lack understanding of the effect of their administration on others" which "can lead to chaos, and unhappy teachers"; some headteachers are "not even conscious that teachers become concerned" - they "know what they want, and assume teachers know what they want, so they do not communicate clearly or consistently" and both are "unknowingly pulling in different directions". "In-service management training might help", for "the profiles show someone is not communicating something"! Also, two-way communication channels implemented by "new-style Heads" with "discussions and lots of meetings" are "not enough if messages are inconsistent, or dismissive of teachers' time and energy and the pressures exerted upon their workloads". If teachers are "low on the list of priorities", "not clear of their roles" or "work in a way they don't like" it leads to "instability and stress".

Teachers' explanations of the data are consistent with their meanings of organisational climate which reflect reactions to how control is exerted by headteachers through management processes. How the direction of control is perceived appears a highly subjective, psychological experience, affecting feelings of autonomy to create either happiness and satisfaction or anxiety and stress. Stress causes distress at a personal level and potential disruption at an organisational level.

Thus, it could be useful for headteachers to acknowledge that teachers differentiate between meanings of ethos and organisational climate and that they react to meanings of the latter in ways that can support or conflict with aims to establish school ethos. Teachers too, react differentially at different levels of the organisational hierarchy. They suggest headteachers may lack person management skills which management training skills might help to alleviate. They also challenge the criteria and procedures of headship selection processes.

Further studies could investigate the relationship between different ways of construing organisational climate and role-based stress in schools. For example, teachers' term meanings and explanations indicate role-group discrepancies between the latent and manifest functions of school management processes, and forces of which people are largely unaware can create stress. Management stress arising from teachers' reactions might also be investigated. Psychoanalytic theory could provide a reference framework for such studies. Jacques Lacan, in demonstrating how symbolic order determines personal reality, has argued for psychoanalysis` as a linguistic-based procedure aimed at the interpretation of communicative behaviour, (see Coward, 1979). If meanings are largely undisclosed to their owner, their unravelling may require an in-depth, interpretative approach.

Individually focused models, however, may over-emphasise individual problems without reference to the broader social context, and findings based on these could bias policy-making decisions by directing attention away from organisation-level dysfunctions. For example, pressures that create teacher stress may have been incurred by changes in the secondary curriculum or the arrival of a new headteacher. Thus, while not denying the value of individual-level analysis, it might be augmented by organisational or societal level analysis. A conceptual framework is required that takes account of the complexity of interactions between the societal and organisational context, teachers' actions and personal meanings; a symbolic interaction perspective can reflect the unique configurations of social experience and their regeneration into the organisational and social context.

CHAPTER 13

DISCUSSION

By asking the question "what *is* organisational climate?" this study has investigated the term's conceptual and methodological issues in considering whether the construct is too global to be of further use in studies of school organisations.

It has adopted a teacher as well as management perspective to investigate whether role groups at different levels of the school organisational hierarchy perceive one or many different climates - i.e., whether the construct is a global organisational attribute or an individual attribute with multiple realities. Assuming the construct as a constructed reality, the study has adopted a qualitative approach to (a) investigate the extent of the construct's existence as a personally constructed or global reality and (b) examine whether a symbolic level of analysis of underlying meanings and feelings can uncover hitherto untapped criteria relevant to the construct. The study has not forsaken quantitative methods, but has adopted these where necessary to investigate the extent to which the construct is an individual, group or organisational attribute - as a set of *intra*-subjective multiple realities or one with *inter*-subjective, perhaps universal, characteristics. The study has also taken a "researcher as insider" stance in seeking empathy and understanding between respondent and researcher in the collection and communication of data; to this end it has accepted and incorporated teachers' self-reflexive knowledge as a relevant and meaningful component of the research process. The possibility of a global, constructed reality of shared meanings is acknowledged, but the findings indicate the construct is fundamentally more specific, personal and imbued with feelings than traditional climate studies have so far assumed.

Both qualitative and quantitative analyses have indicated that teachers' meanings of the term, organisational climate, relate specifically to their reactions of headteachers' control of management processes in achieving school aims, the outcomes of which are reflected in school ethos. At the symbolic - or meanings level of analysis - the term relates to, but is distinguished from, ethos. To varying degrees among different role groups of a

school's organisational hierarchy, the terms exist as overlapping sets of meanings, one nested within the other. Although teachers do not use the term, organisational climate, in the everyday language of actual school practice, implicit differences in term meanings are explicated by reflection upon their experiences of school management processes. Meanings of organisational climate appear to be highly personal and private with awareness of them achieved only by conscious scrutiny. They also appear to be emotionally charged. In contrast the term, ethos, is commonly used with meanings broader than those of organisational climate, for they encompass pupil-pupil, teacher-pupil and parent-teacher as well as teacher-headteacher relationships in the historical, social, economic and political context of a school world. It seems, too, that school ethos as the outcome or product - rather than processes - of interpersonal relationships arises from aims and values underlying the school curriculum and can be differentially perceived by both school "insiders" and "outsiders". Thus, the qualitative approach to the study in tapping teachers' meanings and feelings, has distinguished the construct of organisational climate and enabled its hermeneutic significance to be highlighted. Although teachers' meanings and feelings as on-going processes may be more temporal and hence, more vulnerable to change in specific school contexts, statements in these terms have been confirmed by quantitative analyses with 18 teachers from different secondary schools. In contrast, 37 headteachers, also from different secondary schools, have failed to make these distinctions and seem unaware of teachers' interpretations.

For teachers, organisational climate appears to have psychological significance as an individual, personal construct in a complex, ever-changing set of multiple realities among colleagues who are in continuous negotiation. Teachers react feelingly to the "vibes" or vibrations of these experiences for they seem to have invested a personal stake in their outcomes. The network analyses, (Tables 10.3-10.18), indicate in simple terms, their satisfaction - or the vehemence of their anger, stress, disillusion or unhappiness with the organisational climate at a particular moment in time. Not all teachers share meanings so consensus of organisational climate cannot be assumed. Categories of contrasting meanings, however, appear to form general patterns that are similar to the underlying linear dimensions of traditional climate studies and may be

common characteristics of other work environments.

There is more consensus for meanings of school ethos as it is more generally perceived. Although teachers may or may not support the values contributing to ethos, its meanings do not appear to evoke personal reactions or feelings to the same extent as do meanings of organisational climate, (Tables 10.3 - 10.18). Teachers - as for example, school "B" teachers, - may support the ethos, but react against the organisational climate engendered by management processes to achieve it. Teachers consider ethos meanings are more akin to meanings of school climate than to meanings of organisational climate - and there is little correlation between meanings of school climate and organisational climate. The term culture too, might be equated more with ethos and school climate than with teachers' meanings of organisational climate, though such a culture in the light of this study may only apply to secondary school staffrooms. Thus, to teachers, the meaning of the term, organisational climate, is much more specific and may have more psychological significance than has been assumed by many earlier studies.

Headteachers seem unaware of such differences in meaning; they assume the terms, ethos and organisational climate as the same construct. This synonymity has also been assumed by researchers such as Halpin & Croft (1964), whose OCDQ climate studies of 2000 elementary schools have been influential in policy-making decisions related to educational administration. Similarly, other climate measures of school organisations in the US, such as Likert's, (1967), Profile of a School, [POS], and Stern et al's, (1970), Organisational Climate Index,[OCI], or UK studies such as Finlayson's, (1973), School Climate Scales (based upon Halpin & Croft's OCDQ), and Rutter et al's, (1979), study of 12 inner city London schools, have all assumed the terms as synonyms. By their methodology, they have also assumed organisational consensus between management and teachers is necessary for school effectiveness. Although Finlayson, (1973), took account of different perceptions at different levels of the organisational hierarchy, he still assumed school organisational climate as an overall global construct with consensus for school effectiveness.

In a recent article, (Maxwell and Ross Thomas, 1991), Finlayson still assumes term

synonymity while now attacking the concept as "an outdated metaphor" that is "unsuitable and devious" and supporting Anderson, (1982), in recommending it be replaced by the "more powerful concept" of "culture". His objections arise from the "paucity of 'knowledge' that has emerged at the end of a prodigious amount of time and effort". He claims the metaphor has been overly concerned in educational administration with the dominant paradigm of managerial control in order to increase school effectiveness and teachers have assumed, therefore, they are powerless to affect it. He agrees with Bates, (1987), that the construct has become essentially static when, to be consistent with the metaphor, it should be a dynamic entity varying within schools, between schools and over time. He also criticises "outside" researchers for their poor handling of data by their lack of concern for people *in* schools and their assumption that such people work in an apolitical, ahistorical context without economic relevance. In the light of the findings of this study, it seems Finlayson's objections do not go far enough! In contrast, the authors, Maxwell and Ross Thomas, (1991), (the latter of whom carried out validity studies of the OCDQ, 1972), suggest his objections may be going too far - and continue to confuse meanings by generally supporting the concept be subsumed within an analysis of school culture. They claim that "since the 1970s organisational climate has become an established part of the educational administration literature", that "teachers have long since been familiar with the sense conveyed through the metaphor....and from their understanding have worked to improve school climate",(1991). Such claims are at variance with the findings of this study.

This study has already taken account of Finlayson's methodological concerns by addressing conceptual and methodological issues surrounding the construct. Its concern for a teacher as well as management perspective has elicited an authentic teachers' account of the management processes of a staffroom world as meanings of organisational climate. These meanings have been distinguished from their meanings of either school climate or ethos. They have also been distinguished from those of headteachers. Although individual meanings have been related to a specific economic and political context in time, the categories within which they have been subsumed, suggest more general criteria which are more resistant to the effects of time.

The qualitative approach has also yielded unusual and, at times, sensitive material at an unusual level of detail about the staff-room world of school organisations. Thus, in gathering the "thick" and "deep" data of specific school contexts, the researcher-as-insider approach has not only been a semantic exercise in differentiating between meanings of organisational climate and ethos; it has also collected data that contributes to the understanding of the school organisation as a whole, thereby indicating the underlying value and significance of both constructs in schools as organisations.

Equally importantly, this qualitative analysis has enabled two school organisations to be systematically, or methodically, compared and contrasted in terms of teachers' meanings of ethos and organisational climate. The study is not a case study. Neither with two schools and two further small samples of teachers and headteachers can it claim to validate fully its findings. It may claim, however, to have presented some commonalities and differences between schools for substantiation by successive studies. Schools "A" and "B", for example, demonstrate not only between-school but also within-school differences for each of the constructs with differing degrees of consensus and contradiction, and with qualitatively different reasons for each term in each school. The contrasts in term definitions, (Tables 10.1 & 10.2), and meanings-in-contrast format of the network analyses, (Tables 10.3 - 10.18), demonstrate the degree of within-school differences or contradiction as opposed to teacher consensus, in relation to the specific context of each school - with more contradiction in both schools for the term, organisational climate, and more consensus for the term, ethos. Thus, teachers' meanings challenge the assumptions by traditional climate studies of the necessary consensus required for a managerial model. Contradiction among teachers is present at a symbolic level of analysis and may even be a necessary ingredient for maintaining a "healthy" organisation in the management of change, even though this may not appear to be wanted by participants.

Between-school differences by qualitative methods demonstrate an overall similarity with the dimensions of traditional climate studies and go some way to supporting their "scientific method" assumptions of commonality across space, but in this study they still leave unresolved the requirement for stability of factor structures over time. For

this, a longitudinal study would be required.

Apart from indicating within and between school differences, the three samples of school "B" teachers, INSET teachers and headteachers also demonstrate considerable agreement in the quantitative analyses indicating the stability in the distinctiveness of the profiles for organisational climate and ethos items. Although the profiles differ in degree at the extent to which each sample differentiates between the meanings, the profiles have similar patterns to suggest the appropriateness of the items as meanings of each term.

Thus, teachers' meanings of the terms, unlike those of headteachers, challenge the assumptions of traditional climate studies by suggesting that researchers can no longer assume the terms are interchangeable. As "insider" members of school organisations teachers challenge "outside" researchers' assumptions of organisational climate as a global, multi-faceted organisational attribute that already exists to be differentially perceived by all - organisational "insiders" and "outsiders" alike. However, pupils as well as teachers are "insiders" of school organisations and it is doubtful whether pupils would have the necessary experience of staffroom life to share teachers' meanings of the construct. Would pupils, therefore, share their own, qualitatively different meanings of the construct - or is organisational climate a construct that is specific only to teachers or other employees of organisations? Would different pupils of different ages, gender and ability experience different organisational climates? The findings of this study may only affect pupils indirectly for it has been concerned primarily with teachers and it makes no claims to relate to school effectiveness in terms of narrow quantitative measures of pupils' achievement.

Similarly, can "outsiders" such as parents, visitors or even researchers who are not even "school members" directly experiencing the interactions of a school world for any length of time, have a similar set of meanings or a set of meanings which are again, qualitatively different? Thus, do different sets of people concerned with organisations have different understandings of the construct which are qualitatively different and so cannot be compared? Despite being substantiated by 18 teachers and 37 headteachers in

other school contexts, the present study has qualified the construct's meanings only to teachers, including headteachers, of different status and pointed to between and within differences by comparing two salient teacher groups in two secondary schools. In these respects, establishment of the construct's veridical nature has been constrained.

Refining the construct of organisational climate by differentiating its meanings from those of ethos, however, highlights the importance of a symbolic level of analysis in research studies. Differences between teachers' and headteachers' meanings at this level of analysis support Halpin & Croft's - and others' - assumptions of the construct rooted in the "two-way" differences perceived between headteachers and teachers in organisational interaction, but challenge their assumptions of its investigation at a perceptual level of analysis by positivist, scientific method techniques. While the same dimensions have been identified, underlying meanings have identified the construct's distinctiveness. The dimensions are useful but, as surface, categorising labels they miss the significance of an entire complex of implicit meanings embedded within. The network structures, however, are useful in delineating the nature of the linkage between the individual and organisational levels of analysis.

The qualitative technique of network analysis, however, does not support the *independence* of the basic dimensions assumed by traditional studies - autonomy, control, reward and consideration, (Campbell et al (1970). Network analyses suggest teachers experience organisational climate as a bipolar factor of autonomy and control; headteacher consideration and reward are also significant as bipolar factors of control by the extent to which they may limit teacher autonomy.

Thus, while control appears to be a source factor, organisational climate is not solely defined by the control dimensions of leadership style or an authority system of control: individual autonomy is a necessary balancing factor Not even Likert's two-way communication channels for decision-making and power equalisation are sufficient explanation without taking into account the degree of perceived autonomy: teachers' interpretations of decision-making procedures and their reactions to these are an important part of the equation.

The symbolic level of analysis, therefore, attaches more significance to teachers' experiences of management processes and less upon the perceived characteristics of a management perspective. It may also explain the overlap between earlier measures of climate and measures of other constructs such as job-satisfaction. In attempts to identify climate dimensions by questionnaires, "outside" researchers may have inadvertently tapped similar meanings related by the dimension. Thus, a symbolic level of analysis has afforded further insights into the nature of the construct: it appears to have identified the construct's distinctiveness, indicated bipolarity of its basic dimensions and drawn attention to individuals as recipients of management concerns.

This analysis of symbolic level data, however, is not without methodological problems. Although quantitative data appear to support the interpretation of the qualitative data, there are other methodological considerations that could limit the conclusions to be drawn.

For example, samples of teachers and headteachers are not equivalent. No measures were taken to control sample size, status, age or gender of the teachers concerned, nor the social contexts of the schools. In school "B", teachers were older and more experienced than INSET teachers attending professional courses: 16/37 teachers were in middle management as HOD's or Year Heads - a high proportion compared with schools organised by Faculties which combine subject disciplines. Of the sample of headteachers only five were female, whereas school "B"'s headteacher was female. She was also new to the school and in her first post as headteacher; these factors were not controlled in the group of headteachers. A further problem of the meanings level of analysis and its qualitative methodology lay in achieving a balance between the differing viewpoints of headteachers and teachers, both of whom could communicate articulately and expressively with a powerful use of language, but whose numbers were unavoidably weighted to bias interpretation. The sensitivity of the data among working members of a single organisation added to these problems. Offset against these, however, is the potential therapeutic value of studies of this nature in schools for they can encourage communication to mitigate stress.

Subjective, self-report interview data may also be unreliable as the basis for confirming hermeneutic significance by quantitative analysis. Numbers of organisational climate and ethos items for instance, were unbalanced and some items were weaker as indicators and/or discriminators.

Similarly, with card-sorts and questionnaires of identical statements each method created its own form of interaction between researcher and respondents to influence the data collected. Unlike questionnaires, card-sort techniques allow teachers to discuss unfamiliar term meanings so they can re-consider and re-define categories. Teachers also employ different strategies for completing card-sorts which can influence categorisation. School "B" headteacher, for instance, read all card statements and placed these face upwards on the table before categorising them; other teachers categorised statements one by one and some needed to re-track and re-define. Such strategies also reflect the degree of concentration and cognitive skills required, so card-sort statements although appropriate in this context, may be unreliable with different population samples.

Card-sort statements formatted as relatively impersonal questionnaires may also confuse teachers unfamiliar with the study - despite introductory explanations. Although pragmatic, questionnaires with 39 unfamiliar, idiosyncratic statements addressed thrice to different terms are not the most appropriate means of sustaining involvement, and lack of consideration could skew subsequent results. It is possible, for example, for term differences to be affected by a second, or even third, time order effect as the concepts in the questionnaires were presented in a fixed order. The brevity of the card-sort and questionnaire statements too, could create difficulty or uncertainty, for brief phrases summarise interview statements and condense meanings in language which may be unfamiliar to teachers and headteachers in different contexts.

Thus, quantitative techniques based upon meaning-laden interview data may have skewed the results to influence data interpretation and could account for the relationships found between term meanings by the organisational climate items.

Discrete organisational climate meanings, however, do appear to exist, as ethos items were considered inappropriate for defining them. Organisational climate items, therefore, could be weak discriminators or their significance may not be elicited by the level of analysis tapped by quantitative techniques.

Similarly, conclusions may be limited by the qualitative methodology which partly supports Weber's interpretative method and partly takes into account Schutz's phenomenological method in comparing schools by the similarities and differences of meaning-laden individual data. At the second level of the logical process towards objectivity, the re-ordering of data into hierarchies of categories to demonstrate the construct's emergent organisational-force properties address, but do not conform to the requirements of either Weber or Schutz. Categories were not predetermined in accordance with Weber's method of understanding; neither were they discrete, essential logical distinctions with specified criteria for marginal instances. They were confounded by what he might have termed less-than-logical, affective data. It was not possible too, to check the content validity of the categories with teachers as consistent with their experiences. Despite "client-centred" efforts to "talk as they talk, see as they see, and feel as they feel", (Mehan & Wood,1975), the group was too large and teachers' available time too limited for checking their concurrence with the interpretation. Thus, the subjectivity of an unvalidated and less than logically rigorous interpretation of data could limit the conclusions to be drawn.

However, in addressing the third and final level of this analysis, the study has sought to satisfy the assumptions of both Weber and Schutz. By extending the study to INSET teachers and headteachers from other schools and quantifying their data, it has attempted to follow Weber in explicating the more general rules underlying the categories of rule-meanings to consider the construct as an "outside", objective, preexisting reality with determining force. It has also to some extent followed Schutz's assumptions in seeking the objectivity of a semantic reality shared among participants' meanings and feelings - including those of the researcher. The competing assumptions of a personal construct lodged firmly within the minds of individuals in a specific context and the objectivity of a preexisting construct with universal characteristics, may be irreconcilable although

both need to be acknowledged when investigating the nature of the construct. Both assumptions appear to be sustained: the meanings of INSET teachers and headteachers appear to support those of school "B" teachers and headteacher, while teachers suggest organisational climate is a personal construct, whose commonalities depend upon the extent to which meanings and feelings are shared in a specific school context. The construct is unavailable to those outside the staffroom.

There are more positive aspects of the methodology to support the data interpretation. For example, the unusual nature of the statements stimulated teachers' awareness to allow term meanings to be tapped systematically. School "B" teachers noted the relevance of the card-sort technique while headteachers found the task "interesting and different" because of its "teacher perspective" and "implications for school management".

The purpose of the study and the data generated by it, have also been discussed with teachers in terminology which has not only been meaningful to them; the dialogue appears to have contributed to the conceptual clarity of the construct for researchers! Researcher responsibility is not only acknowledged but demanded, for data interpretation and for recognising the sensitivity, empathy and trust required for data of this nature.

Similarly, relationships and differences between term meanings have been evidenced by different methods of analysis which have looked at the data from different viewpoints as a form of methodological triangulation for reliability. Twin profiles of item frequencies, for instance, are supported by subjects' same/change score frequencies which, with histograms, sign tests and correlation coefficients, are consistent in supporting the hypotheses arising from the qualitative analysis.

Despite methodological limitations, the findings support the tenets of the role/ rule-meaning model's theoretical framework of symbolic interaction for the explanation of data at a symbolic level of analysis. For instance, the theory's notions of intersubjectivity, alter ego, social construction of reality, and human agency, grounded

in the direct experience of organisational interaction can all be identified in the data.

The intersubjective concepts of roles and rule-meanings seem useful for explaining the symbolic nature of the construct. However, while role-group distinctions have been helpful for differentiating the viewpoints of controllers and those controlled, they do not, perhaps, acknowledge fully the personal significance of the construct to individual teachers. The concept of rule-meaning, encompassing the fluid, temporal and negotiable nature of more tacit, implicit rules, the style or manner in which such rules are created and maintained, and the feelings invoked by both, has been a useful level of analysis for tapping the symbolic nature of organisational climate as an intersubjective construct.

The unanticipated differentiation of term meanings by teachers but not headteachers, however, does not uphold the propositions or hypotheses of the conceptual model. Meanings of school organisational interaction do not contribute to a global construct of ethos and organisational climate as assumed. Teachers hold different meanings of the interaction concerning management content and management processes. Headteachers, as initiators of both, do not make the same distinctions. For teachers, therefore, the model needs to be revised to differentiate between management content and management processes as components of management interaction. Also, as curriculum and pastoral issues have been shown to be constituents of management content, these issues may be more appropriately subsumed under management content than as the discrete systems assumed by the model.

As a *supra*-individual linkage of curriculum, pastoral and management issues, the present model is more appropriate for conceptualising the more comprehensive, interpersonal relationships of school ethos or, perhaps, school climate. As teachers' meanings of organisational climate are more concerned with their specific, direct experience of management processes, organisational climate might be nested within the more global assumptions of the ethos model. A model is required for organisational climate, which must account for teachers and headteachers as recipients and initiators of management processes which influence the overall end-product of ethos. In its concern

for the psychological effects upon teachers of school management processes and a staffroom world, the organisational climate model is a necessary component of a model of school ethos.

Thus, by addressing conceptual and methodological issues, this study appears to have identified organisational climate as a highly subjective, psychological construct which for teachers, but not headteachers, is differentiated from ethos. Its distinctiveness as a construct has been justified. The study, therefore, has gone some way to meeting Guion's, (1973), concern for the construct as a "fuzzy concept" determined more by "methodological convenience" than by efforts to coneptualise it. The findings also suggest to school managers and administrators, that teachers' personal experiences of management processes may facilitate or inhibit not only the achievement of school aims, but also teachers' self-fulfilment. Although network analysis remains to be developed the study has demonstrated its viability for identifying and comparing meanings of the construct. Successive studies are required to seek commonalities and differences to fill in gaps left by the study.

Essentially, the study's findings can be summarised by the views of one teacher: "Oh no! organisational climate is not the same thing at all as ethos; ethos is more pervasive - the school's educational picture.....the end result; though there is overlap - for ethos and organisational climate are meshed and obviously interconnected - organisational climate is personal... how I feel...my own perceptions...which might, or might not, coincide with those of the pupils and others".

Conceptualising the construct of organisational climate in these terms might, with appropriate methodology, pave the way for increasing its effectiveness as a psychological construct of organisational research. However, as the present construct's terminology seems to have created uncertainty and ambiguity, Jones & James, (1974), recommendation of "psychological climate" could be more appropriate since this study has pointed strongly to the nature of the construct as an individual attribute and has highlighted its psychological significance at a symbolic level of analysis. Although Jones and James' methods would be inappropriate for tapping criteria at this level of

analysis, this step would at least help to ensure the construct does not become engulfed by the global concept of "culture" as recommended by Anderson, (1982), Strivens, (1985), Finlayson, (1987), and Maxwell & Ross Thomas, (1991), and lose its specific meaning and place as a psychological construct in an organisational model.

APPENDIX 1

FRAMEWORK OF INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term "organisational climate"?
2. How would you describe the term in relation to the way things are here?
3. What do you understand by the term 'ethos"?
4. How would you describe the ethos of this school?
5. Curriculum issues of concern:
   What do you see as the most important aspects of the curriculum at the moment?
   With whom do you communicate on matters of the curriculum?
   How are they dealt with? - Are there any procedures that would explain these views?
   How do you feel about these - positive or negative?
6. Pastoral issues of concern: What?
   Who?
   How are they dealt with?
   Feelings about these?
7. Management issues of concern: What?
   Who?
   How are they dealt with?
   Feelings?
8. What things appear to get the highest priority here - and why?
9. Whom do you see as important people in the school - and what makes them so?
10. How do they go about influencing others?
11. What works best - and why?
12. What does not work - and why?
13. Who could veto or block initiatives - and how?
14. How do you see yourself in the school organisation - and why? - are there any changes that have affected your relationship with the organisation?

APPENDIX 2

HALPIN & CROFT: THE 8 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

TEACHERS' BEHAVIOUR

1. **DISENGAGEMENT** refers to the teachers' tendency to be "not with it". This dimension describes a group which is "going through the motions", a group that is "not in gear" with respect to the task in hand. It corresponds to the more general concept of "anomie" as first described by Durkheim. In short, this sub-test focuses upon the teachers' behaviour in a task-oriented situation.

2. **HINDRANCE** refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands and other requirements which the teachers' construe as unnecessary "busywork". The teachers perceive that the principal is hindering rather than facilitating their work.

3. **ESPRIT** refers to morale. the teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied and that they are, at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their job.

4. **INTIMACY** refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task accomplishment.

PRINCIPAL'S BEHAVIOUR

5. **ALOOFNESS** refers to the behaviour by the principal which is characterised as formal and impersonal. He "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. His behaviour, in brief, is universalistic rather than particularistic; nomothetic rather than idiosyncratic. To maintain this style he keeps himself - at least, "emotionally" - at a distance from his staff.

6. **PRODUCTION EMPHASIS** refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterised by close supervision of the staff. he is highly directive and plays the role of the "straw boss". His communication tends to go in only one direction and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

7. **THRUST** refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterised by his evident effort in trying to "move the organisation". Thrust behaviour is marked not by close supervision, but by the principal's attempt to motivate teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask teachers to give of themselves any more than he willingly gives of himself, his behaviour, though starkly task-oriented, is nonetheless viewed favourably by the teachers.

8. **CONSIDERATION** refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterised by an inclination to treat the teachers "humanly" - to try to do a little extra for them in human terms.

APPENDIX 3

SCORING SHEET FOR CARD SORT STATEMENTS

ETHOS			ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE		
SR	MR	NA	SR	MR	NA
1.....			1.....		
2.....			2.....		
3.....			3.....		
4.....			4.....		
5.....			5.....		
6.....			6.....		
7.....			7.....		
8.....			8.....		
9.....			9.....		
10.....			10.....		
11.....			11.....		
12.....			12.....		
13.....			13.....		
14.....			14.....		
15.....			15.....		
16.....			16.....		
17.....			17.....		
18.....			18.....		
19.....			19.....		
20.....			20.....		
21.....			21.....		
22.....			22.....		
23.....			23.....		
24.....			24.....		
25.....			25.....		
26.....			26.....		
27.....			27.....		
28.....			28.....		
29.....			29.....		
30.....			30.....		
31.....			31.....		
32.....			32.....		
33.....			33.....		
34.....			34.....		
35.....			35.....		
36.....			36.....		
37.....			37.....		
38.....			38.....		
39.....			39.....		

APPENDIX 4

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE
STATEMENTS OF ETHOS AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE MEANINGS

As qualified teachers with secondary school experience, please would you consider how you might use the following terms in relation to your secondary school practice:

[i] SCHOOL CLIMATE
[ii] ETHOS
[iii] ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

The terms may be synonymous to you, or there could be differences in meaning.

Below is a list of terms supplied by teachers in a secondary school, to describe how these terms function for them in their organisation.

Considering each of the terms separately on each list:

e.g., SCHOOL CLIMATE [LIST 1]
ETHOS [LIST 2]
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE [LIST 3]

please rate the extent of your agreement with the items on this list by ticking the appropriate column:
[SR] "strongly represents"
[MR] "moderately represents"
[NA] "not appropriate"
in relation to each term.

Thank you.

SCHOOL CLIMATE

		SR	MR	NA
1.	The nature of teacher pupil relationships			
2	The headteacher's style of leadership			
3.	State of the physical environment			
4.	Level and type of noise generated			
5.	Degree of organisational structure imposed by management, the "who does what and how" in the system			
6.	Concern for standards of discipline			
7.	My experience of the organisation upon my own perceptions and feelings			
8.	Concern for acceptable codes of behaviour to others			
9.	The school community or culture			
10.	Concern for appropriate dress/uniform			
11.	Effectiveness of day-to-day administration			
12.	Concern for achievement/examination success			
13.	Teachers knowing "where they are "in the system and their feelings towards it			
14.	Traditional/progressive approaches			
15.	Degree of academic emphasis			
16.	Ways members influence others to achieve goals			
17.	The deep-down inside, below the surface processes			
19.	Single sex/mixed sex			
20.	Effect of status, power/influence upon teachers			
21.	Elitist/egalitarian values operating in the school			
22.	Ways in which management functions for teachers			
23.	Inter-relationships between management and teachers			
24.	Concern for maximising interests and opportunities for all ages of ability			
25.	General feeling about the ways in which the school is managed			
26.	On-the-surface, school image qualities, for everyone to see			
27.	Degree of teacher commitment			
28.	Degree of commitment to work by pupils			
29.	Concern for individuality/conformity			
30.	School atmosphere			
31.	Quality of teaching throughout the school			
32.	Level of parental control			
33.	Atmosphere generated by senior management processes for teachers			
34.	Nature of communication allowed by the role structure of the organisation			
35.	Ways decisions are made in the school - the kinds of discussion allowed			
37.	The tone of the school			
38.	Balance between autonomy and control			
39.	A collective attitude towards the school			

ETHOS

		SR	MR	NA
1.	The nature of teacher pupil relationships			
2	The headteacher's style of leadership			
3.	State of the physical environment			
4.	Level and type of noise generated			
5.	Degree of organisational structure imposed by management, the "who does what and how" in the system			
6.	Concern for standards of discipline			
7.	My experience of the organisation upon my own perceptions and feelings			
8.	Concern for acceptable codes of behaviour to others			
9.	The school community or culture			
10.	Concern for appropriate dress/uniform			
11.	Effectiveness of day-to-day administration			
12.	Concern for achievement/examination success			
13.	Teachers knowing "where they are "in the system and their feelings towards it			
14.	Traditional/progressive approaches			
15.	Degree of academic emphasis			
16.	Ways members influence others to achieve goals			
17.	The deep-down inside, below the surface processes			
19.	Single sex/mixed sex			
20.	Effect of status, power/influence upon teachers			
21.	Elitist/egalitarian values operating in the school			
22.	Ways in which management functions for teachers			
23.	Inter-relationships between management and teachers			
24.	Concern for maximising interests and opportunities for all ages of ability			
25.	General feeling about the ways in which the school is managed			
26.	On-the-surface, school image qualities, for everyone to see			
27.	Degree of teacher commitment			
28.	Degree of commitment to work by pupils			
29.	Concern for individuality/conformity			
30.	School atmosphere			
31.	Quality of teaching throughout the school			
32.	Level of parental control			
33.	Atmosphere generated by senior management processes for teachers			
34.	Nature of communication allowed by the role structure of the organisation			
35.	Ways decisions are made in the school - the kinds of discussion allowed			
37.	The tone of the school			
38.	Balance between autonomy and control			
39.	A collective attitude towards the school			

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

		SR	MR	NA
1.	The nature of teacher pupil relationships			
2	The headteacher's style of leadership			
3.	State of the physical environment			
4.	Level and type of noise generated			
5.	Degree of organisational structure imposed by management, the "who does what and how" in the system			
6.	Concern for standards of discipline			
7.	My experience of the organisation upon my own perceptions and feelings			
8.	Concern for acceptable codes of behaviour to others			
9.	The school community or culture			
10.	Concern for appropriate dress/uniform			
11.	Effectiveness of day-to-day administration			
12.	Concern for achievement/examination success			
13.	Teachers knowing "where they are "in the system and their feelings towards it			
14.	Traditional/progressive approaches			
15.	Degree of academic emphasis			
16.	Ways members influence others to achieve goals			
17.	The deep-down inside, below the surface processes			
19.	Single sex/mixed sex			
20.	Effect of status, power/influence upon teachers			
21.	Elitist/egalitarian values operating in the school			
22.	Ways in which management functions for teachers			
23.	Inter-relationships between management and teachers			
24.	Concern for maximising interests and opportunities for all ages of ability			
25.	General feeling about the ways in which the school is managed			
26.	On-the-surface, school image qualities, for everyone to see			
27.	Degree of teacher commitment			
28.	Degree of commitment to work by pupils			
29.	Concern for individuality/conformity			
30.	School atmosphere			
31.	Quality of teaching throughout the school			
32.	Level of parental control			
33.	Atmosphere generated by senior management processes for teachers			
34.	Nature of communication allowed by the role structure of the organisation			
35.	Ways decisions are made in the school - the kinds of discussion allowed			
37.	The tone of the school			
38.	Balance between autonomy and control			
39.	A collective attitude towards the school			

APPENDIX 5

SCORING SHEET FOR QUESTIONNAIRE STATEMENTS

SCHOOL CLIMATE			ETHOS			ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE		
SR	MR	NA	SR	MR	NA	SR	MR	NA
1			1			1		
2			2			2		
3			3			3		
4			4			4		
5			5			5		
6			6			6		
7			7			7		
8			8			8		
9			9			9		
10			10			10		
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36			36			36		
37			37			37		
38			38			38		
39			39			39		

APPENDIX 6

HEADTEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE
STATEMENTS OF ETHOS AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE MEANINGS

As headteachers with secondary school experience, please would you consider how you might use the following terms in relation to your secondary school practice:

[i] SCHOOL CLIMATE
[ii] ETHOS
[iii] ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

The terms may be synonymous to you, or there could be differences in meaning.

Below is a list of terms supplied by teachers in a secondary school, to describe how these terms function for them in their organisation.

Considering each of the terms separately on each list:

e.g., SCHOOL CLIMATE [LIST 1]
ETHOS [LIST 2]
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE [LIST 3]

please rate the extent of your agreement with the items on this list by ticking the appropriate column:
[SR] "strongly represents"
[MR] "moderately represents"
[NA] "not appropriate"
in relation to each term.

Thank you.

APPENDIX 7

SCHOOL "B": SR & NA CATEGORY FREQUENCIES

N=37

	ROLE GROUPS																							
	HEAD				SENIOR MANAGEMENT				MIDDLE MANAGEMENT				ASSISTANT TEACHERS				NEW TEACHERS							
	OC		E		OC		E		OC		E		OC		E		OC		E		OC		E	
	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA
E1	31	0	14	6	1	0	1	0	4	0	0	2	12	1	8	3	8	0	4	1	6	0	1	1
2	37	0	31	0	1	0	1	0	4	0	4	0	16	0	13	0	11	0	9	0	6	0	4	0
E3	11	5	6	14	1	0	1	0	2	1	0	2	5	3	0	5	1	2	1	5	2	0	1	3
E4	10	4	10	7	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	3	2	3	4	3	2	3	2	2	0	2	0
5	36	0	9	0	1	0	1	0	4	0	3	1	14	0	2	4	11	0	3	3	6	0	2	0
E6	27	0	21	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	0	14	1	9	1	7	0	5	1	4	0	4	0
7	14	8	7	8	1	0	-	0	1	2	1	2	6	5	4	7	3	1	1	5	2	0	2	1
E8	30	1	14	5	1	0	1	0	3	0	0	1	14	0	6	3	7	0	4	2	5	0	4	0
E9	22	2	12	10	1	0	0	1	3	0	0	2	8	1	7	4	6	1	1	4	5	0	2	1
E10	11	8	4	11	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	4	5	2	5	1	3	0	4	1	1	1	2
11	37	0	10	0	1	0	1	0	4	0	1	0	14	0	4	5	11	0	2	1	6	0	2	2
E12	20	0	14	8	1	0	1	0	3	0	2	1	9	0	8	3	6	0	1	3	2	0	3	1
13	28	2	12	2	1	0	1	0	4	0	1	2	9	2	4	4	9	0	4	4	5	0	2	0
E14	11	9	8	10	0	1	0	0	2	2	2	2	5	5	3	2	2	1	1	4	2	1	2	2
E15	13	4	9	12	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	2	5	7	3	7	3	0	1	3	3	0	3	1
16	20	1	15	1	1	0	-	-	3	0	1	1	7	0	6	1	7	1	4	3	2	0	2	0
E17	22	0	3	18	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	10	0	2	10	6	1	0	7	4	0	0	1
18	23	4	17	4	1	0	0	0	2	1	1	2	9	3	8	2	9	0	6	2	3	0	1	1
E19	18	7	11	15	1	0	1	0	4	1	1	2	8	3	4	7	3	3	2	6	3	1	2	1
20	21	2	5	2	1	0	-	0	2	1	3	1	8	0	3	6	7	0	0	7	4	0	0	0
E21	16	4	17	10	0	1	1	0	3	0	1	2	6	4	8	5	5	1	5	3	2	0	0	3
22	35	0	12	0	1	0	1	0	3	0	1	2	14	0	5	4	11	0	4	3	6	0	1	1
23	36	0	18	0	1	0	1	0	3	0	2	1	16	0	6	1	11	0	5	3	6	0	4	0
E24	30	0	14	4	1	0	1	0	3	0	1	1	13	1	3	2	8	0	4	1	5	0	3	0
25	25	3	15	3	1	0	1	0	3	0	2	2	9	3	7	3	9	0	2	4	3	0	3	0
E26	17	4	7	14	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	3	8	4	1	7	4	0	1	4	3	1	1	2
E27	33	1	20	2	1	0	1	0	4	0	3	0	14	1	9	1	8	1	4	2	6	0	3	0
E28	22	3	12	11	1	0	1	0	3	0	0	2	12	2	6	4	6	2	3	4	5	0	2	2
E29	22	4	11	8	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	1	10	1	5	4	6	3	1	2	4	0	3	1
E30	32	1	15	10	1	0	1	0	3	0	2	1	15	1	6	5	7	1	4	3	6	0	2	2
E31	30	2	9	9	1	0	1	0	3	1	0	2	11	1	2	3	9	1	1	4	6	0	2	1
E32	18	2	5	10	1	0	0	0	4	1	0	2	9	1	3	5	4	1	1	4	2	0	0	0
33	34	1	16	1	1	0	1	0	3	0	2	1	15	0	8	0	11	0	3	2	5	0	2	0
34	34	2	15	2	1	0	1	0	4	0	3	1	15	0	6	1	10	0	4	3	5	0	1	1
35	23	0	21	0	1	0	1	0	4	0	4	0	8	0	8	1	8	0	5	2	2	0	3	0
36	35	1	19	1	1	0	1	0	4	0	3	1	13	1	6	0	11	0	5	2	6	0	4	2
E37	24	3	7	12	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	1	12	2	3	5	4	2	1	6	5	0	1	1
38	26	2	17	2	1	0	1	0	3	1	2	2	10	1	7	1	8	0	2	2	5	0	3	0
39	30	2	22	2	1	0	1	0	3	1	2	0	11	1	10	1	9	0	3	0	6	0	2	0

APPENDIX 8

SR & NA CATEGORY FREQUENCIES

	INSET TEACHERS n=18						HEADTEACHERS n=37					
	OC		E		SC		OC		E		SC	
	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA	SR	NA
E1	5	4	16	1	16	1	19	2	35	0	25	1
2	18	0	18	0	18	0	32	0	32	1	30	2
E3	6	6	8	5	3	1	11	11	9	4	11	1
E4	1	10	8	4	7	2	11	5	7	1	6	2
5	17	1	3	4	8	0	32	0	10	2	11	1
E6	6	4	12	0	10	2	20	2	28	0	30	0
7	6	4	2	8	4	2	18	5	11	5	9	2
E8	5	5	12	0	11	2	20	2	30	0	29	1
E9	3	5	13	1	11	0	16	2	28	0	21	0
E10	9	2	4	5	5	3	15	5	11	4	11	4
11	18	0	5	1	7	0	34	0	16	1	18	1
E12	3	5	7	1	6	1	13	4	17	0	17	2
13	12	0	6	3	5	2	28	0	14	1	18	0
E14	4	7	13	2	8	2	10	8	11	7	8	4
E15	6	3	7	4	6	2	7	7	10	3	9	3
16	5	3	9	3	5	4	22	3	18	1	16	0
E17	2	8	13	3	5	2	12	8	24	1	15	0
18	4	4	8	2	7	3	7	7	12	2	9	3
E19	3	11	5	5	8	4	8	4	15	0	13	17
20	3	2	3	5	3	3	13	5	7	4	5	3
E21	5	4	5	4	10	3	11	7	21	1	19	1
22	15	0	2	5	7	2	30	0	13	3	20	1
23	17	0	4	3	9	1	30	0	23	1	24	0
E24	8	4	10	4	10	1	22	4	25	0	25	0
25	12	1	7	1	8	2	26	1	15	1	16	0
E26	2	5	10	1	6	2	13	4	15	1	14	1
E27	6	1	12	1	13	0	26	2	33	0	35	0
E28	5	6	12	1	13	0	20	6	24	2	24	2
E29	3	4	9	2	9	1	12	6	20	1	18	1
E30	6	3	14	1	6	0	13	4	30	0	29	0
E31	3	7	6	2	10	2	16	2	26	0	24	1
E32	2	5	7	1	8	2	14	4	23	1	21	1
33	17	0	3	6	6	2	33	0	18	1	16	1
34	17	1	5	2	7	4	28	0	12	1	11	1
35	6	1	12	2	9	1	27	0	22	1	23	1
36	17	1	9	8	14	1	31	0	20	1	21	0
E37	3	4	15	0	13	0	13	2	24	0	27	0
38	14	4	7	2	10	1	24	1	18	1	12	1
39	14	1	7	0	6	1	20	2	22	0	20	2

APPENDIX 9

39 ITEM BY 37 TEACHER MATRIX OF PAIRED E/OC SCORES
SCHOOL B

TEACHER NOS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
	22	12	12	12	12	12	22	22	11	11	13	12	12	11	11	11	11	12	13	12	13	11	21	11	21	12	22	11	12	32	11	12	13	13	11	11	13
	21	21	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	21	11	11	11	11	21	11	11	11	11	11	11	21	11	21	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	21	11	11	11	11
	33	23	12	22	23	22	22	21	22	23	13	22	33	23	11	22	11	12	23	12	33	22	33	22	22	22	33	13	22	33	12	22	12	22	22	12	13
	33	22	22	22	11	22	22	31	21	22	12	21	12	11	22	22	22	12	23	22	32	21	32	22	22	22	23	12	22	32	21	23	12	13	21	22	13
	21	21	21	21	21	11	31	11	11	11	21	21	31	11	21	21	11	31	31	11	31	11	21	21	32	21	11	22	21	21	31	31	31	21	21	21	21
	22	12	22	12	11	11	13	21	21	11	12	11	11	11	21	22	22	11	22	11	21	12	21	11	11	11	12	11	11	11	11	11	12	13	32	12	12
	22	12	22	22	31	21	32	33	22	11	31	22	32	22	22	12	21	31	22	33	13	21	22	33	33	21	22	32	11	32	33	23	31	11	33	11	32
	22	12	22	13	11	11	23	22	11	11	11	11	11	11	12	12	11	12	13	22	12	11	12	11	13	12	22	12	12	11	11	12	12	13	21	11	13
	23	22	12	13	12	11	22	23	12	21	13	12	32	12	21	12	31	12	23	12	13	11	11	11	11	12	22	11	22	22	22	22	13	13	33	11	21
	33	22	32	23	12	22	22	22	22	22	13	23	33	21	22	32	22	12	23	21	11	22	33	22	23	12	33	33	12	22	31	22	12	22	32	11	23
	21	21	21	21	21	11	21	21	11	11	31	11	21	21	21	31	11	21	21	11	21	11	32	22	31	21	21	11	21	21	11	21	31	31	31	11	21
	12	12	22	12	12	12	23	23	23	11	22	23	21	21	22	11	11	12	23	11	11	22	21	11	12	22	11	22	21	11	11	13	11	11	23	13	22
	21	31	21	22	11	11	31	32	11	21	21	11	11	21	21	12	11	21	31	11	31	21	21	33	33	21	11	21	21	12	22	32	21	11	32	11	22
	23	23	12	22	11	22	22	23	32	22	33	22	32	11	23	11	23	12	33	11	33	12	12	32	21	22	11	32	22	22	32	32	22	23	11	12	33
	22	22	22	22	12	11	23	23	23	21	22	22	22	11	13	11	21	12	23	11	23	23	32	21	33	22	12	33	11	32	32	33	11	12	23	13	33
	11	21	12	22	11	11	31	32	23	21	12	22	21	11	22	22	21	21	32	21	11	22	12	22	11	22	11	21	11	21	22	32	12	22	21	11	22
	13	23	23	12	22	12	12	33	13	22	11	12	23	12	12	22	22	12	23	12	22	13	23	11	22	12	12	23	12	23	11	23	13	13	23	13	13
	12	21	22	11	11	11	21	11	11	21	32	21	31	11	22	22	11	21	32	11	33	11	11	22	21	12	11	21	21	12	23	22	31	11	13	11	33
	33	13	22	22	11	11	33	23	32	22	11	32	23	12	23	11	11	12	13	31	13	33	11	11	32	22	13	11	12	23	11	33	13	23	12	23	22
	22	31	21	32	22	21	31	31	31	21	21	22	32	21	21	22	31	11	31	12	13	22	31	22	32	21	11	11	21	22	31	32	31	22	32	11	22
	21	23	11	23	12	11	33	11	22	11	21	22	22	11	22	22	13	12	23	11	13	21	12	11	31	21	21	11	23	32	33	23	11	13	21	23	32
	21	31	21	21	11	11	31	11	11	21	31	21	21	11	21	21	11	21	32	11	31	11	21	22	31	21	11	11	21	11	32	21	31	21	31	11	21
	21	21	11	21	11	11	31	11	11	21	11	31	11	11	11	21	11	11	32	11	21	11	21	21	21	11	11	11	11	11	21	21	31	21	21	21	21
	12	13	22	12	11	11	23	22	11	11	12	12	11	11	22	11	11	12	23	12	11	11	12	11	12	12	11	22	12	12	11	12	13	13	32	12	22
	21	31	21	21	21	21	31	32	11	21	22	12	12	11	11	22	11	11	32	11	31	21	22	33	33	11	11	13	11	12	11	31	21	21	21	12	21
	23	13	22	22	12	12	22	21	22	12	13	22	23	22	13	31	22	11	23	11	23	22	12	22	12	21	12	33	12	23	33	33	12	13	33	13	12
	11	12	22	12	11	11	23	33	12	11	12	11	11	11	12	12	11	11	12	11	11	11	11	11	11	22	11	12	11	11	11	11	12	12	12	33	11	12
	12	22	23	33	11	11	22	33	13	21	13	23	11	12	12	11	11	12	13	12	23	21	11	11	12	11	12	11	12	11	22	13	12	12	33	13	33
	12	22	12	12	11	12	32	32	22	11	12	12	32	21	23	11	11	12	23	21	11	12	11	22	12	22	11	12	11	11	11	22	12	23	33	13	23
	13	12	13	22	11	11	22	31	12	11	13	12	21	13	12	11	11	11	23	12	11	12	12	11	12	11	22	11	12	11	11	13	13	13	33	12	13
	12	12	13	12	11	11	23	33	11	12	13	12	11	12	11	11	11	12	13	12	33	22	11	11	22	12	12	22	12	22	12	12	12	12	33	13	13
	12	13	23	22	23	11	22	33	22	12	22	22	22	12	22	22	21	12	13	12	33	22	22	11	22	12	12	12	12	11	21	23	12	13	33	13	23
	21	31	21	21	11	11	21	11	21	21	21	21	21	11	11	22	11	11	31	11	22	11	11	22	11	11	11	21	21	11	21	21	21	11	21	11	21
	21	32	21	21	11	11	31	21	11	21	21	21	11	11	31	22	11	11	31	11	11	11	21	12	31	21	11	21	21	21	21	22	11	11	21	11	21
	11	21	12	21	11	11	21	32	12	22	22	11	21	11	12	22	11	11	11	11	11	21	22	11	32	21	12	11	11	21	12	22	12	22	11	12	21
	21	21	11	21	11	11	31	11	11	11	31	11	21	11	31	11	11	11	31	11	11	12	21	21	21	11	11	21	21	12	23	21	21	21	11	11	21
	33	23	23	13	11	22	22	33	12	12	13	22	22	12	12	11	11	12	23	12	22	11	12	11	12	11	12	33	12	23	13	22	12	13	33	12	12
	22	22	11	21	11	21	21	31	21	11	21	21	22	11	22	11	11	11	32	11	33	11	11	22	22	11	11	21	21	22	21	21	11	12	33	11	22
	11	22	11	21	11	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	11	11	11	21	11	11	13	11	11	21	11	22	12	11	11	21	11	11	13	22	11	21	31	11	11
E/OC SAME	16	8	17	14	26	29	14	19	21	22	9	19	17	24	18	26	31	14	5	24	21	23	15	33	15	21	23	22	16	20	20	14	7	12	16	19	13
SR-CHANG	2	9	2	3	1	0	10	4	3	0	13	0	3	1	4	2	3	2	13	1	10	1	2	0	5	0	1	2	0	0	5	5	13	13	4	8	7

APPENDIX 10

39 ITEM BY 18 TEACHER MATRIX OF PAIRED E/SC/OC/ SCORES
TEACHERS N=18

TEACHER NOS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	E_SC_OC																	
	112	111	112	112	112	323	113	112	122	112	113	212	112	113	111	111	111	111
	111	111	111	111	121	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111
	123	222	122	121	122	133	222	221	323	112	323	323	321	113	321	212	221	221
	213	233	133	113	112	122	223	323	223	112	112	323	322	123	223	212	111	222
	223	331	111	311	211	221	221	321	221	221	211	211	221	311	221	111	111	221
	113	211	121	112	111	232	223	222	222	121	112	112	111	112	122	111	112	233
	233	321	223	222	112	322	211	332	331	222	221	322	323	322	212	211	121	133
	123	222	212	111	112	233	113	212	112	112	111	123	121	113	122	111	111	232
	113	121	213	112	112	322	112	112	222	112	111	223	111	223	122	112	212	123
	113	222	131	121	112	122	333	121	212	122	122	223	323	223	232	222	111	112
	221	211	221	321	211	221	221	221	221	211	221	221	121	211	211	111	211	121
	231	322	112	112	222	223	123	123	121	222	212	113	112	223	222	222	111	222
	221	331	211	221	111	332	111	222	221	112	112	222	121	321	221	222	221	221
	213	113	313	111	112	132	223	123	122	122	123	113	111	322	122	131	111	122
	123	332	121	112	222	222	323	122	222	122	213	113	111	333	222	132	111	213
	231	222	313	321	112	112	112	322	232	121	222	132	112	322	221	122	221	223
	122	333	122	113	122	323	123	131	123	212	323	113	122	122	122	121	112	113
	212	223	232	122	112	333	112	113	221	221	112	211	322	122	122	121	212	233
	113	331	213	113	111	323	223	132	212	222	213	333	122	333	313	223	222	213
	232	333	222	221	223	332	212	322	111	222	212	222	322	322	222	221	222	122
	222	333	213	222	122	322	112	321	211	111	211	111	212	333	212	232	111	111
	321	311	211	311	221	231	111	321	221	211	221	211	222	221	221	111	221	332
	221	211	211	311	211	311	111	221	221	121	211	211	321	221	221	111	221	232
	232	111	313	322	111	312	111	123	122	212	221	113	112	122	111	111	121	123
	131	223	221	212	221	232	112	211	221	222	111	211	312	221	121	111	221	111
	123	233	122	212	122	123	113	232	212	222	333	222	221	122	122	122	111	112
	222	212	312	111	111	212	112	212	122	111	113	112	211	112	112	111	111	121
	323	223	112	222	112	112	113	212	122	212	113	113	211	113	112	111	111	121
	312	222	113	113	122	322	112	122	122	222	223	112	111	233	212	222	111	211
	113	112	321	122	112	223	112	112	111	121	113	212	212	212	111	111	111	111
	223	313	213	222	211	322	113	223	232	112	233	113	213	122	212	111	111	112
	333	222	112	223	213	112	111	222	122	222	213	123	212	332	222	211	112	122
	221	322	321	321	221	331	111	211	221	221	111	211	321	331	221	111	221	311
	231	131	221	321	111	322	111	211	221	121	111	221	211	331	211	211	221	231
	122	112	213	321	112	222	112	332	212	121	122	111	112	121	112	111	221	322
	211	211	111	211	111	321	111	221	231	111	111	112	211	211	111	111	121	211
	123	112	122	113	112	122	123	122	112	212	111	213	112	212	111	112	111	112
	321	321	121	222	221	211	111	232	121	212	211	112	211	221	211	111	111	111
	222	223	222	111	122	132	112	212	221	222	222	112	111	222	222	111	221	122
E/OC																		
SAME	10	16	14	14	10	10	14	13	15	23	15	10	16	8	18	29	25	14
SR-CHANGE.	12	7	4	13	0	5	8	7	2	0	5	11	4	9	1	0	0	4
OC/SC																		
SAME	9	20	13	17	18	17	13	12	14	18	18	14	18	18	20	28	21	19
SR-CHANGE.	11	6	10	5	1	2	5	2	2	0	7	9	2	6	1	1	0	4
E/SC																		
SAME	17	24	14	22	28	14	33	15	19	23	24	24	15	21	21	27	33	18
SR-CHANGE..	2	3	6	3	0	5	0	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	2	0	2

APPENDIX 11

39 ITEM BY 37 HEADTEACHER MATRIX OF PAIRED E/SC/OC SCORES

HEADTEACHERS N=37

HEADTEACHER NOS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
E/SC/OC																																					
	111	113	112	112	112	112	112	111	112	111	112	112	111	112	111	111	112	112	111	112	112	111	112	112	111	111	111	111	111	111	213	111	111	111	111	111	222
	111	121	111	121	112	111	121	111	111	111	211	111	122	111	211	111	112	111	122	111	111	221	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	311	121	111	222	111	111	111
	223	223	222	123	223	223	213	222	212	222	322	222	211	323	221	211	221	222	123	222	112	111	222	223	111	121	111	212	121	222	323	211	111	333	222	222	222
	333	222	222	231	223	223	113	221	212	222	212	212	222	222	222	221	221	222	121	221	221	122	223	222	222	122	221	111	121	222	222	111	222	222	222	222	222
	111	221	221	221	221	121	221	111	221	222	321	211	222	221	221	111	221	221	211	221	221	221	111	221	121	121	211	221	221	211	331	111	222	222	222	111	111
	112	222	112	222	213	112	113	221	111	111	212	111	111	222	111	122	221	112	111	112	111	111	112	112	111	212	111	211	122	112	111	111	111	111	111	111	111
	123	333	221	211	223	111	122	221	313	212	222	221	222	221	223	111	121	222	323	221	121	222	121	222	221	211	111	122	121	221	331	111	333	222	222	222	222
	113	221	112	112	223	212	112	221	112	112	111	112	111	112	121	111	121	122	111	112	112	111	222	112	111	111	111	211	112	211	122	111	111	111	111	111	111
	213	221	222	112	223	122	122	221	112	222	112	111	221	122	121	112	121	112	212	122	112	121	112	112	122	112	111	111	111	112	111	121	111	111	111	111	111
	333	222	122	322	333	333	123	221	212	111	221	212	212	232	111	221	221	223	222	221	221	221	222	111	221	222	212	122	222	222	122	111	111	222	111	111	111
	111	221	211	211	221	121	221	221	211	211	211	211	121	221	121	111	221	221	222	211	111	111	111	221	121	221	111	111	121	211	331	111	111	222	111	222	111
	222	222	113	221	233	233	122	223	211	111	212	212	221	221	111	112	212	222	122	212	111	122	222	222	112	122	222	221	112	121	311	121	111	222	111	222	111
	111	221	211	111	223	111	211	221	221	222	221	111	212	221	222	112	212	221	223	221	111	221	111	221	111	222	212	222	112	121	311	111	111	222	111	222	111
	333	221	123	323	333	222	223	333	122	112	221	311	222	322	121	221	222	222	122	112	112	222	221	222	212	223	221	221	112	222	112	121	111	222	222	111	111
	223	221	123	323	233	133	113	333	232	222	211	312	223	221	121	222	222	222	222	112	112	221	221	112	222	212	222	322	112	222	122	111	222	222	222	222	222
	111	221	223	111	221	211	222	223	111	111	221	111	212	113	221	111	122	111	221	222	112	112	222	221	121	111	121	121	222	321	111	111	222	111	222	222	
	223	222	111	222	323	123	113	223	122	121	222	111	111	223	111	121	222	122	112	112	222	111	212	112	222	122	221	122	123	222	123	111	111	222	111	222	222
	213	222	223	113	333	222	222	223	112	222	222	111	121	213	222	122	122	222	111	222	222	222	111	222	222	222	122	122	211	122	333	221	111	222	222	222	222
	333	221	213	113	333	323	331	333	333	112	222	333	111	332	112	333	121	112	333	111	112	111	112	222	222	333	111	223	122	212	123	122	111	333	333	333	333
	123	221	213	222	323	221	222	333	221	222	221	212	222	232	222	221	122	221	122	222	111	222	221	212	222	323	221	121	121	222	332	221	111	222	222	222	222
	113	221	123	113	313	111	223	223	112	112	112	112	221	121	232	121	112	222	112	222	111	112	212	222	222	222	111	121	112	111	113	111	222	222	111	222	222
	211	221	211	111	311	121	222	221	211	212	221	111	222	221	222	211	212	221	222	221	111	211	211	221	111	121	111	211	321	121	331	111	111	222	111	111	111
	111	221	111	111	213	121	221	221	111	222	121	111	222	221	112	111	212	221	122	221	111	111	111	211	111	121	111	111	211	111	321	111	111	222	111	111	111
	111	221	223	123	123	112	221	113	111	112	121	212	121	212	122	111	222	212	111	112	111	221	212	212	221	121	111	111	211	111	112	111	111	111	111	111	111
	111	222	111	111	221	111	222	223	211	222	221	111	222	221	222	211	212	221	212	221	111	121	211	221	221	121	111	121	111	121	321	111	111	222	111	222	222
	333	222	223	221	222	213	222	222	222	222	222	112	121	222	122	111	221	222	112	222	111	111	211	122	212	212	112	221	112	111	123	111	111	222	111	222	222
	111	222	112	112	221	111	111	113	111	111	111	111	111	112	112	111	222	111	111	112	111	112	111	211	111	111	111	111	111	111	113	111	111	111	111	111	111
	111	222	223	213	223	213	111	223	111	232	112	111	121	222	111	111	222	212	111	112	111	212	222	122	111	121	111	111	111	111	133	111	111	222	111	111	111
	111	221	213	113	233	113	212	223	122	222	112	111	121	122	222	222	122	212	111	222	112	122	222	223	211	221	111	111	112	112	123	111	111	222	111	222	222
	113	221	112	122	223	113	112	223	112	111	112	112	111	112	111	111	122	212	111	222	112	112	122	112	212	112	111	112	111	111	122	111	111	222	111	111	111
	112	222	123	112	223	212	112	221	112	111	212	111	111	222	111	111	222	112	111	222	112	111	221	112	111	111	121	111	112	112	132	111	111	222	111	222	111
	111	222	123	213	223	222	112	221	112	222	212	212	111	122	122	111	333	222	112	222	222	112	112	122	112	111	111	121	111	222	222	111	111	111	111	111	111
	111	221	212	111	221	111	221	221	111	221	121	111	221	221	121	111	221	221	222	221	111	221	121	221	121	211	111	121	111	111	331	111	111	222	111	222	111
	111	221	211	112	221	111	222	221	211	222	221	111	222	221	222	221	221	221	232	221	221	211	121	221	121	132	121	111	211	211	321	121	111	222	111	222	111
	111	223	112	112	222	111	221	221	111	111	112	111	211	112	221	111	112	211	112	221	111	222	111	211	221	121	111	111	111	111	221	331	111	111	222	111	222
	111	221	111	112	221	111	121	221	111	222	121	111	221	211	221	211	111	221	111	221	111	111	111	211	111	112	111	111	221	211	321	111	111	222	111	222	222
	212	212	122	123	222	112	112	222	122	111	112	111	211	222	112	112	222	112	111	222	211	112	212	112	111	111	111	221	211	321	111	111	222	111	222	222	
	111	221	222	112	223	121	222	221	111	212	121	111	121	221	121	121	222	221	111	222	221	121	222	221	122	211	111	221	111	222	331	121	111	222	111	111	222
	111	222	113	112	223	111	222	221	131	212	111	111	111	112	212	111	122	222	111	222	111	122	221	211	222	111	111	121	111	121	132	111	111	222	111	222	222
E/OC																																					
SAME	25	18	10	15	12	23	14	10	19	32	18	29	30	12	25	25	20	18	26	16	22	20	25	13	27	24	33	24	17	28	22	35	39	39	39	39	39
SR	5	1	7	7	2	4	6	2	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	10	1	0	0	0	0	0
SC/OC																																					
SAME	26	15	15	13	12	19	15	10	23	27	12	26	24	11	20	28	17	17	27	17	22	22	21	19	23	17	33	21	19	28	11	31	39	39	39	39	39
SR	5	1	5	7	3	4	6	3	2	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0
SC/E																																					
SAME	33	36	24	21	28	25	30	39	25	32	24	29	25	28	26	30	24	32	27	36	37	29	27	28	29	18	35	22	23	27	18	32	39	39	39	39	39
SR	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0

APPENDIX 12

INDIVIDUAL RANK ORDER OF E/OC SAME SCORE FREQUENCIES (WITH CORRESPONDING SR/CHANGE SCORE)

12a

SCHOOL "B" TEACHERS n=37

No.	RANK	Same Score f	SR/ Change Score f
24	1	33	0
17	2	31	3
6	3	29	0
5	4=	26	1
16		26	2
20	6=	24	1
14		24	1
22	8=	23	1
27		23	1
28	10=	22	2
10		22	0
9	12=	21	3
21		21	10
26		21	0
30	15=	20	0
31		20	5
36	17=	19	8
12		19	0
8		19	4
5	20	18	4
3	21=	17	2
13		17	3
1	23=	16	2
35		16	4
29		16	0
23	26=	15	2
25		15	5
32	28=	14	5
18		14	2
7		14	10
4		14	3
37	32	13	7
34	33	12	13
11	34	9	13
2	35	8	9
33	36	7	13
19	37	5	13

12b

INSET TEACHERS n =18

No.	RANK	Same Score f	SR/ Change Score f
16	1	29	0
17	2	25	0
10	3	23	0
15	4	18	1
13	5=	16	4
2		16	7
9	7=	15	2
11		15	5
3	9=	14	4
18		14	4
7		14	8
4		14	13
8	13	13	7
5	14=	10	0
6		10	5
12		10	11
1		10	12
14	18	8	9

12c

HEADTEACHERS n=37

No.	RANK	Same Score f	SR/ Change Score f
37	1=	39	0
36		39	0
35		39	0
34		39	0
33		39	0
32	6	35	
27	7	33	
10	8	32	
13	9	30	
12	10	29	
30	11	28	
25	12	27	
1	13=	26	
19		26	
15	15=	25	
16		25	
23		25	
26	18	24	
28		24	
6	20	23	
21	21	22	
17	22=	20	
22		20	
9	24	19	
18	25=	18	
2		18	
11		18	
29	28	17	
20	29	16	
4	30	15	
7	31	14	
24	32	13	
5	33	12	
14		12	
3	35	10	
8		10	
31	37	6	

APPENDIX 13

INDIVIDUAL RANK ORDER OF SAME SCORE FREQUENCIES
(WITH CORRESPONDING SR/CHANGE SCORES)
FOR:
(a) SCHOOL CLIMATE/ ETHOS; (b) SCHOOL CLIMATE/ ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

13a TEACHERS

SC/ E				SC/ OC			
No	RANK	SAME SC	SR/ CH SC	No	RANK	SAME SC	SR/ CH SC
17	1=	33	0	16	1	28	1
7		33	0	17	2	21	0
5	3	28	0	15	3=	20	1
16	4	27	2	2		20	6
11	5=	24	0	18	5	19	4
12		24	1	10	6=	18	0
2		24	3	5		18	1
10	8	23	0	13		18	2
4	9	22	3	14		18	6
14	10=	21	1	15		18	7
15		21	1	6	11=	17	2
9	12	19	0	4		17	5
18	13	18	2	9	13	14	2
1	14	17	2	12	14	14	9
13	15	15	1	7	15	13	5
8	16	15	2	3	16	13	10
6	17	14	5	8	17	12	2
3	18	14	6	1	18	9	11

13b HEADTEACHERS

SC/ E				SC/ OC			
No.	RANK	SAME SC	SR/ CH SC	No	RANK	SAME SC	SR/ CH SC
37	1=	39	0	37	1=	39	0
36		39	0	36		39	0
35		39	0	35		39	0
34		39	0	34		39	0
33		39	0	33		39	0
8		39	0	27	6	33	0
21	7	37	0	32	7	31	0
2	8=	36	0	30	8=	28	0
20		36	0	16		28	0
27	10	35	0	19	10=	27	0
1	11	33	0	10		27	0
10	12=	32	0	12	12=	26	0
18		32	0	1		26	5
32		32	0	13	14	24	0
7	15=	30	0	25	15=	23	0
16		30	0	9		23	2
22	17=	29	0	22	17=	22	0
25		29	0	21		22	0
12		29	2	23	19=	21	0
14	20=	28	0	28		21	0
24		28	0	15	21	20	0
5		28	2	29	22	19	0
30	23	27	0	24		19	0
23		27	0	6		19	4
19		27	0	17	25=	17	0
15	26	26	0	18		17	0
13		25	0	20		17	0
6	27=	25	1	26		17	0
9		25	2	2		15	1
11	30=	24	0	3		15	5
3		24	0	7	29=	15	6
17		24	0	4	32	13	7
29	33	23	0	11	33	12	0
28	34	22	0	5		12	3
4	35	21	0	14	35	11	4
26	36=	18	0	31		11	11
31		18	5	8	37	10	3

APPENDIX 14
SCHOOL B
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE ITEMS

	N=37			SENIOR MANAGEMENT			MIDDLE MANAGEMENT			ASSISTANT TEACHERS			NEWCOMERS		
	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN
2	29	8	+	4	0	+	13	3	+	8	3	+	4	2	+
5	9	28	-	1	3	-	3	13	-	4	7	-	1	5	-
7	18	19	-	1	3	-	8	8		6	5	+	3	3	
11	10	27	-	1	3	-	5	11	-	3	8	-	1	5	-
13	14	23	-	1	3	-	7	9	-	4	7	-	2	4	-
16	18	19	-	1	3	-	10	6	+	4	7	-	3	3	
18	20	17	+	2	2		8	8		6	5	+	4	2	+
20	13	24	-	1	3	-	8	8		2	9	-	2	4	-
22	12	25	-	1	3	-	6	10	-	4	7	-	1	5	-
23	16	21	-	2	2		6	10	-	6	5	+	2	4	-
25	14	23	-	2	2		7	9	-	1	10	-	4	2	+
33	18	19	-	3	1	+	9	7	+	3	8	-	3	3	
34	15	22	-	3	1	+	6	10	-	3	8	-	3	3	
35	18	19	-	4	0	+	7	9	-	3	8	-	4	2	+
36	16	21	-	3	1	+	4	12	-	6	5	+	3	3	
38	23	14	+	3	1	+	11	5	+	5	6	-	4	2	+
39	20	17	+	3	1	+	10	6	+	4	7	-	3	3	
	283	346	0.05 s	37	32	1 n.s	128	144	0.43ns	72	115	0.14ns	47	55	1n.s.
	X-7.65	X-9.35	p=0.05	X-9.25	X- 8	p=0.05	X- 8	X- 9	p=0.05	X-6.55	X-10.45	p=0.05	X-7.83	X-9.17	p=0.05

ETHOS ITEMS

	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN
1	15	22	-	0	4	-	7	9	-	5	6	-	3	3	
3	21	16	+	1	3	-	11	5	+	5	6	-	4	2	+
4	17	20	-	1	3	-	5	11	-	8	3	+	3	3	
6	20	17	+	3	1	+	8	8		5	6	-	4	2	+
8	18	19	-	1	3	-	6	10	-	7	4	+	4	2	+
9	13	24	-	0	4	-	10	6	+	3	8	-	0	6	-
10	19	18	+	1	3	-	9	7	+	7	4	+	2	4	-
12	17	20	-	2	2		10	6	+	2	9	-	3	3	
14	19	18	+	3	1	+	7	9	-	5	6	-	4	2	+
15	18	19	-	1	3	-	7	9	-	5	6	-	5	1	+
17	9	28	-	1	3	-	3	13	-	3	8	-	2	4	-
19	17	20	-	0	4	-	8	8		7	4	+	2	4	-
21	16	21	-	1	3	-	4	12	-	6	5	+	5	1	+
24	17	20	-	1	3	-	6	10	-	6	5	+	4	2	+
26	14	23	-	2	2		6	10	-	4	7	-	2	4	-
27	23	14	+	3	1	+	11	5	+	6	5	+	3	3	
28	16	21	-	0	4	-	8	8		6	5	+	2	4	-
29	15	22	-	1	3	-	9	7	+	4	7	-	1	5	-
30	15	22	-	2	2		7	9	-	5	6	-	1	5	-
31	16	21	-	1	3	-	7	9	-	5	6	-	3	3	
32	17	20	-	1	3	-	6	10	-	5	6	-	5	1	+
37	15	22	-	1	3	-	6	10	-	5	6	-	3	3	
	367	447	0.016s	27	61	0.004s	161	191	0.17ns	114	128	0.286n	65	67	1n.s.
	X-9.92	X-12.1	p=0.05	X-6.75	X-15.25	p=0.05	X-10.0	X-11.94	p=0.05	X-10.4	X-11.6	p=0.05	X-10.8	X-11.12	p=0.05

APPENDIX 15

TEACHERS N=18

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE ITEMS

ITEMS	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN
2	18	0	+
5	3	15	-
7	5	13	-
11	3	15	-
13	6	12	-
16	5	13	-
18	3	13	-
20	10	8	+
22	3	15	-
23	4	14	-
25	8	10	-
33	3	15	-
34	5	13	-
35	6	12	-
36	8	10	-
38	9	9	
39	10	8	+
	111	195	0.022s
	X-6.17	X-10.83	p=0.05

ETHOS ITEMS

ITEMS	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN
1	9	9	
3	7	11	-
4	5	13	-
6	8	10	-
8	9	9	
9	5	13	-
10	10	8	+
12	8	10	-
14	5	13	-
15	9	9	
17	6	12	-
19	8	10	-
21	9	9	
24	10	8	+
26	7	11	-
27	10	8	+
28	7	11	-
29	6	12	-
30	9	9	
31	6	12	-
32	7	11	-
37	5	13	-
	165	231	0.016S
	X-9.17	X-12.83	p=0.05

HEADTEACHERS N= 37

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE ITEMS

ITEM	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN
2	29	8	+
5	15	22	-
7	23	14	+
11	19	18	+
13	21	16	+
16	23	14	+
18	24	13	+
20	22	15	+
22	20	17	+
23	25	12	+
25	25	12	+
33	23	14	+
34	19	18	+
35	22	15	+
36	23	14	+
38	25	12	+
39	27	10	+
	385	244	0.000s
	X-10.4	X-6.59	p=0.05

ETHOS ITEMS

ITEM	SAME	CHANGE	SIGN
1	20	17	+
3	22	15	+
4	23	14	+
6	22	15	+
8	18	19	-
9	17	20	-
10	22	15	+
12	20	17	+
14	19	18	+
15	20	17	+
17	22	15	+
19	23	14	+
21	21	16	+
24	23	14	+
26	25	12	+
27	28	9	+
28	27	10	+
29	20	17	+
30	18	19	-
31	24	13	+
32	24	13	+
37	21	16	+
	479	335	0.000s
	X-12.9	X-9.05	p=0.05

APPENDIX 16

PEARSONS PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION

16a TEACHERS N=18

39 ETHOS/SC PAIRED SCORES TEACHER NOS		39 SC/OC PAIRED SCORES TEACHER NOS.	
1	+0.2692	1	-0.2752
2	+0.5056	2	+0.2682
3	-0.1741	3	-0.2418
4	+0.4097	4	-0.1745
5	+0.3118	5	+0.095
6	+0.1176	6	+0.1754
7	+0.7456	7	+0.4519
8	+0.2148	8	+0.053
9	+0.3107	9	-0.0218
10	+0.1825	10	-0.0975
11	+0.5252	11	+0.2661
12	+0.4700	12	+0.2098
13	+0.4364	13	-0.0439
14	+0.5386	14	+0.095
15	+0.1501	15	+0.1501
16	+0.2717	16	+0.4806
17	+0.675	17	-0.095
18	+0.3481	18	-0.2864
	r=+0.35		r=+0.056

16b HEADTEACHERS N=37

39 ETHOS/SC PAIRED SCORES TEACHER NOS.		39 OC/SC PAIRED SCORES TEACHER NOS.	
1	+0.849	1	+0.6598
2	+0.5724	2	-0.1118
3	+0.1746	3	+0.4542
4	+0.4226	4	-0.1643
5	+0.3322	5	+0.2649
6	+0.4266	6	+0.4024
7	+0.6116	7	-0.3025
8	+I.0000	8	+0.3795
9	+0.2541	9	+0.2278
10	+0.6862	10	+0.4696
11	+0.3717	11	-0.3842
12	+0.4692	12	+0.4369
13	+0.2196	13	+0.2981
14	+0.5661	14	-0.1609
15	+0.4973	15	+0.1307
16	+0.5853	16	+0.4819
17	+0.2798	17	-0.3075
18	+0.6000	18	-0.1033
19	+0.5700	19	+0.6148
20	+0.8249	20	-0.2236
21	+0.8555	21	-0.0293
22	+0.4948	22	+0.1257
23	+0.3879	23	+0.1658
24	+0.4055	24	+0.0665
25	+0.4881	25	+0.1777
26	+0.2172	26	+0.2292
27	+0.7196	27	+0.5757
28	+0.2108	28	+0.1732
29	+0.1695	29	+0.0226
30	+0.3809	30	+0.4310
31	+0.3959	31	-0.2391
32	+0.3299	32	-0.3193
33	+I.0000	33	+I.0000
34	+I.0000	34	+I.0000
35	+I.0000	35	+I.0000
36	+I.0000	36	+I.0000
37	+I.0000	37	+I.0000
	r=+0.551		r=+0.255

APPENDIX 17

RESULTS

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AND SCHOOL ETHOS: TEACHERS' AND HEADTEACHERS' MEANINGS

Enclosed are the results of teachers' meanings of the terms organisational climate and school ethos. Also enclosed are the results of the data obtained from a sample of headteachers who also considered the sets of statements. Please could I invite your comments comparing these results, for a discussion before the start of INSET day next week?

Thank you.

SCHOOL "B" TEACHERS' REPORT

The data represent the results of a "card-sort" analysis of the distinctions made by 37 teachers and headteacher in this school between the terms "ethos" and "organisational climate", and a questionnaire of identical statements distributed to 37 headteachers of the Hertfordshire Secondary Headteachers' Association. The data reflect the extent of agreement between teachers' and headteachers' meanings of the terms.

METHOD

Teachers were asked individually, to allocate two identical decks of 39 statement cards relating to the terms of "ethos" and "organisational climate" that emerged from their interview data, to 3 categories of "strongly represents" (SR), "moderately represents" (MR), and "not appropriate" (NA), first, for the term "ethos", then for the term "organisational climate".

To record the data, individual scoring sheets were constructed with two columns numbered 1-39, each column headed "ethos" and "organisational climate", and each

column subdivided by the 3 categories of the card piles.

In each column:
(SR) category was coded 1
(MR) category was coded 2
(NA) category was coded 3

A questionnaire was also constructed with the same 39 statements in the same order as the card decks, and distributed to headteachers who were also asked to rate the items as "strongly represents"(SR), "moderately represents"(MR), and "not appropriate"(NA), as addressed to both the terms "ethos" and "organisational climate". The coding was identical to the card-sort procedure.

DATA ANALYSIS

1. Profiles for the teachers and headteacher of this school, and 37 headteachers, show the ranked order of "strongly represent" [SR], and "not appropriate" [NA], frequencies for each item addressed to
(a) "organisational climate":
[37 teachers, Figures 1(i-iv); headteacher: Fig.1(v); 37 headteachers, Fig.3];
(b) "ethos":
[37 teachers, Figures 2(i-iv); headteacher: Fig 2(v); 37 headteachers, Fig 4].

2. Teachers' and headteachers' categories for each item addressed to ethos and each item addressed to organisational climate were scored and paired item by item as follows:
SAME: 1-1; 2-2; 3-3;
CHANGE: 1-2; 2-3; 2-1; 3-2;
SR-CHANGE: 1-3; 3-1;
and ranked by frequencies of "Same" scores with corresponding "SR-change" scores, [37 teachers, Fig.5; 37 headteachers, Fig. 6).

How may one account for the differences between headteachers' and teachers' meanings of the terms ethos and organisational climate, as demonstrated by profiles?

Organisational Climate Items Ranked by [SR] and [NA] Meanings of Organisational Climate

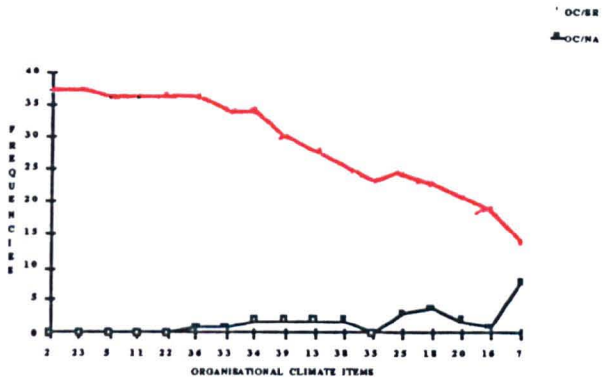

Figure 1. All Teachers

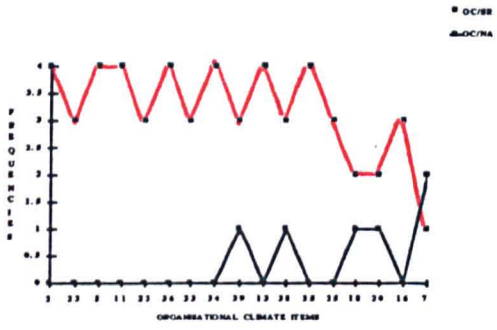

Figure 1.i. Senior Management

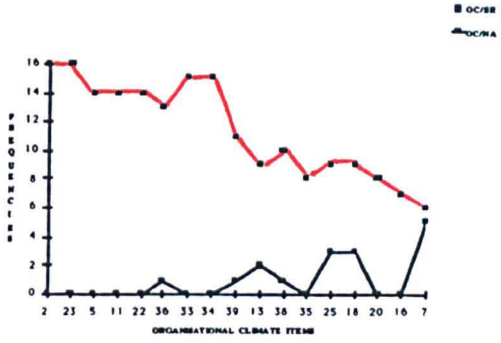

Figure 1.ii. Middle Management

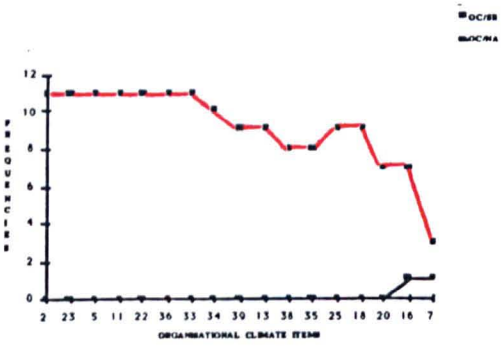

Figure 1.iii. Assistant Teachers

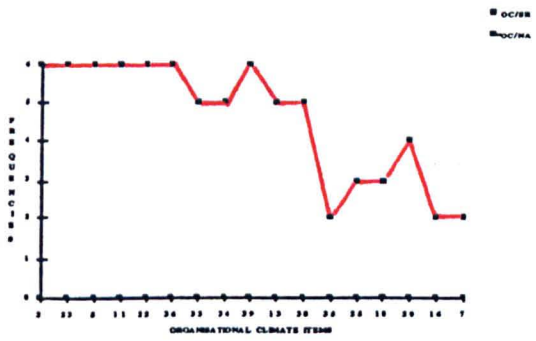

Figure 1.iv. Newcomers

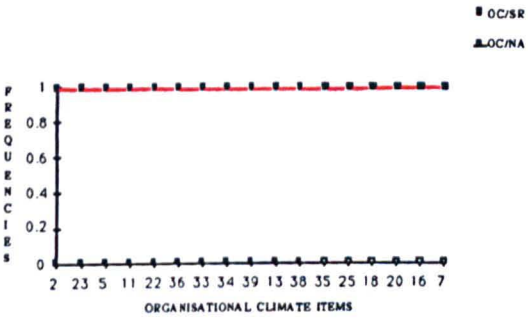

Figure 1.v. Headteacher

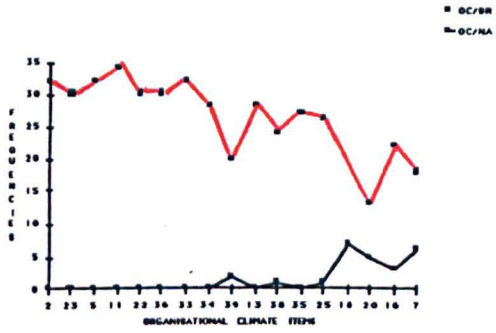

Figure 3. 37 Headteachers

Ethos Items Ranked by [SR] and [NA] Meanings of Ethos

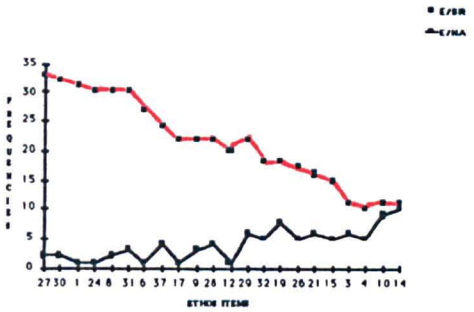

Figure 2. All Teachers

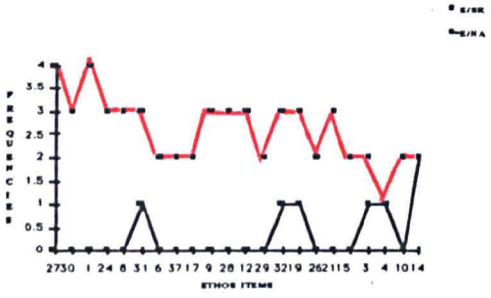

Figure 2.i. Senior Management

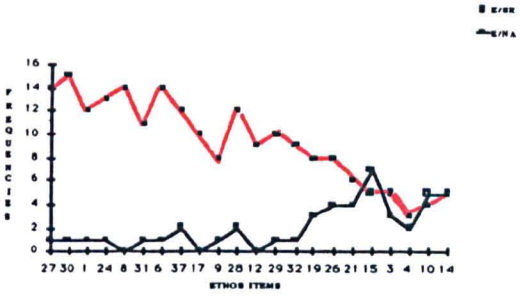

Figure 2.ii. Middle Management

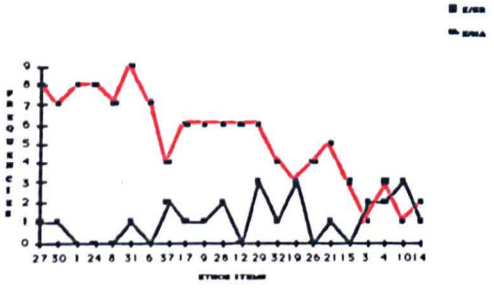

Figure 2.iii. Assistant Teachers

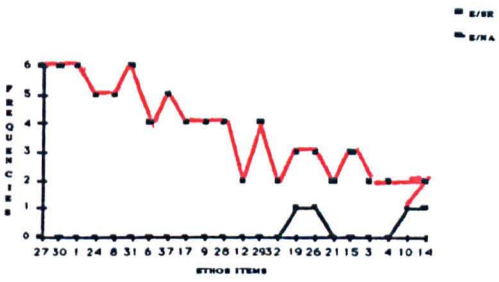

Figure 2.iv. Newcomers

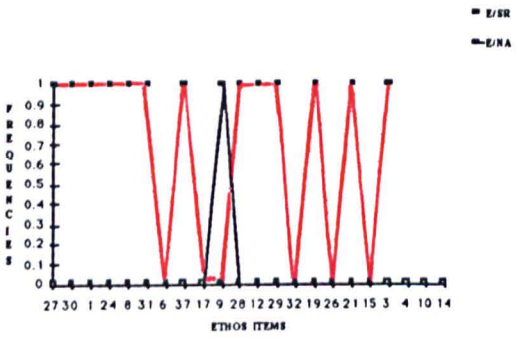

Figure 2.v. Headteacher

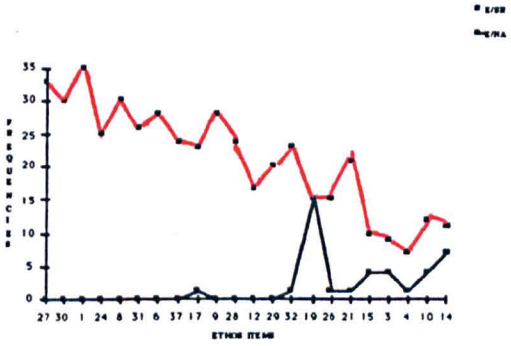

Figure 3. 37 Headteachers

Ranked Frequencies of "Same" and "SR-Change" Scores of Meanings of Organisational Climate And Ethos for n=37 Teachers and n=37 Headteachers

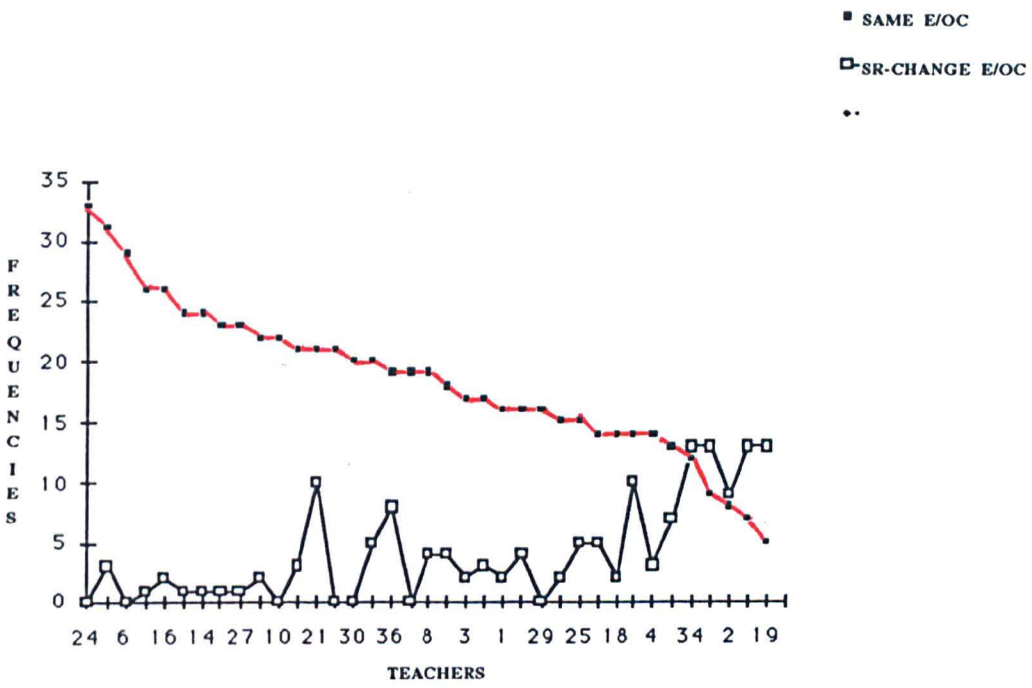

Figure 5. n=37 Teachers

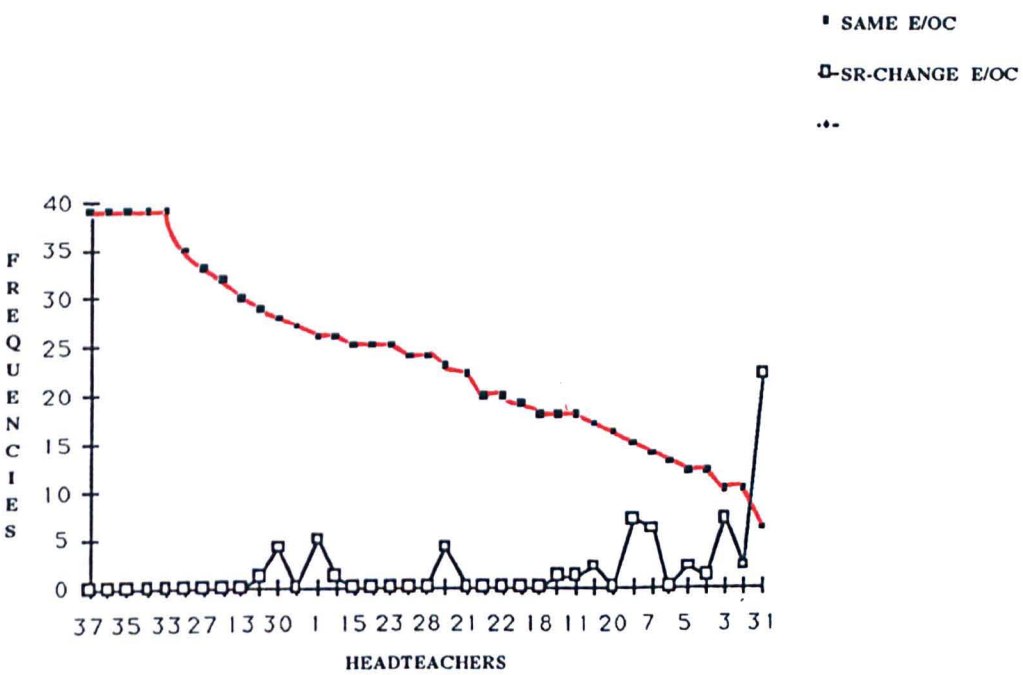

Figure 6. n-37 Headteachers

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